Highways of History

Edited by

The English Citizen

Growth of the English Colonies

HIGHWAYS OF HISTORY

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Edited by

LOUISE CREIGHTON,

AUTHOR OF "A FIRST HISTORY OF ENGLAND,"
"STORIES FROM ENGLISH HISTORY," ETC.

Small 8vo.

THE aim of this series is to give consecutive treatment to certain important subjects in English History. A strictly chronological arrangement of history distracts the reader's attention from one subject to another. Though England's progress has to be studied by reading her history as a whole, yet clearness is gained on many points by a separate survey of some important line of advance. The treatment of the subjects in this series will be adapted for the use of students who have already mastered the general outline of English History, but wish for more connected information with regard to some special point. Each part will be complete in itself, and will treat of its own subject without reference, except where necessary, to the general course of events.

THE GOVERNMENT OF ENGLAND.
THE SOCIAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND.
THE HISTORY OF RELIGION IN ENGLAND.
THE CONNECTION BETWEEN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.
THE ENGLISH IN IRELAND.
THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES.
THE RELATIONS OF ENGLAND WITH FOREIGN POWERS

HIGHWAYS OF HISTORY

GROWTH

OF THE

ENGLISH COLONIES

BY

SIDNEY MARY SITWELL

RIVINGTONS
WATERLOO PLACE, LONDON
MDCCCLXXXIV

PREFATORY NOTE

THE English Colonies, as regards their relation to the mother-country, fall under three heads:

I. *Crown Colonies*, where legislation and administration are entirely under the Home Government. All conquered and ceded colonies come at first into this class, though they may pass on into the others.

II. *Colonies with Representative Institutions*, though not Responsible Government, in which the Crown has a veto on legislation, and the public officers are responsible to it alone.

III. *Colonies with Responsible Government.* Here the Crown, represented by a Governor, has a veto on legislation, but the public officers are responsible only to the representatives of the people. As a matter of fact, the right of veto is never exercised.

The English Colonies are:

IN AMERICA.

The Dominion of Canada .	*Responsible Government.*
Newfoundland . . .	,, ,,
The Windward Islands . .	*Representative Institutions.*

IN AMERICA—*continued.*

The Leeward Islands . .	*Representative Institutions.*
The Bahamas . . .	,, ,,
The Bermudas . . .	,, ,,
Jamaica, with the Turk and Caicos Islands . . .	*Crown Colony.*
Trinidad	,,
British Honduras . .	,,
British Guiana . . .	,,
The Falkland Islands . .	,,

IN AFRICA.

The Cape Colony . .	*Responsible Government.*
Natal	*Representative Institutions.*
West African Settlements .	*Crown Colony.*
St. Helena and Ascension .	,,
Mauritius . . .	,,

IN ASIA.

India	*Crown Colony.*
Ceylon	,,
The Straits Settlements . .	,,
Labuan	,,
Hong Kong . . .	,,
Aden	,,

IN AUSTRALASIA.

New South Wales . .	*Responsible Government.*
Victoria	,, ,,
Queensland . . .	,, ,,
South Australia . . .	,, ,,
West Australia . . .	*Representative Institutions.*
Tasmania . . .	*Responsible Government.*
New Zealand . . .	,, ,,
Fiji Islands . . .	*Crown Colony.*

The Peace of Breda, 1667, ceded Antigua to England.

The Peace of Utrecht, 1713, after the war of the Spanish Succession, gave to England, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, the Hudson's Bay Territory, and St. Christopher, all of which had been in possession of, or claimed by, France.

The Peace of Paris, 1763, at the close of the Seven Years' War, ceded to England, Canada, Cape Breton, and Prince Edward's Island, which she had taken from France, and also gave up the claim of France to military establishments in India.

The Peace of Versailles, 1783, after the war of American Independence, confirmed to England, Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Montserrat, all of which France had possessed or claimed.

The Peace of Amiens, 1802, ceded to England, Trinidad, which she had taken from Spain, and Ceylon, taken from the Dutch.

The Peace of Paris, 1814, confirmed to England the Cape Colony and the Colonies of British Guiana, taken from the Dutch. Also Mauritius, St. Lucia, and Tobago, taken from the French.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER I.

EARLY ATTEMPTS AT COLONIZATION.
1496–1602.

THE spirit of naval adventure, which had slept in Europe since the piratical voyages of the sea kings, awoke during the 15th century. Prince Henry of Portugal, surnamed the Navigator, was early in the field, and the countries of southern Europe appeared destined to lead the way, and reap the harvest of fame and success.

The energy and wealth of England had been wasted for a hundred years over the struggle in France, and then over the miserable wars of the Roses, so that maritime enterprise seemed dead among her people. Foreign ships brought the commodities they required from other countries. Their own vessels did little more than trade between their own ports.

Voyages of the Cabots, and others.—In the reign of Henry VII. exaggerated accounts were given by travellers of the immense riches of Cathay or Khitai, a district to the north-east of China. Thence arose the desire of finding a north-west passage thither by sea, in order to avoid the danger and delay of the land journey. It was with this object that many of the early voyages of discovery were made. Even Columbus did

not dream of finding a new continent, but only a new way to the golden East. The negotiations of his brother Bartholomew with the English Court, though they failed on his own account, and the New World was in the first instance given to Spain, yet turned the attention of Henry VII. in that direction, and an expedition set out from Bristol in 1496. It was led, however, by no Englishman, but by John Cabot, a Venetian or Genoese merchant in that city, who was accompanied by his son Sebastian. In this voyage Cabot reached the continent of America the year before Columbus did so, and landed in Labrador, which he called "Terra Nova Vista." He also discovered the island to which has since been given the similar name of Newfoundland, but he called it St. John's, still the name of its chief town, as it was first seen on St. John the Baptist's day. Some think that the island he called St. John's was that now called Prince Edward's Island. It seems probable that Henry VII. only lent the ships to Cabot, and that the expense of the expedition was borne by himself and others. The king did, however, give "to him that found the new isle £10"!

Of John Cabot we hear no more. Sebastian, in a second voyage, sailed to the north until stopped by ice, and then southwards along the coast of North America as far as 38° or 36° north latitude. It was in right of this voyage that the Crown of England afterwards claimed its North American territory. No attempt was made at the time to pursue the discovery, because Henry VII. was desirous of the friendship of Ferdinand of Arragon, and the country seen lay within the limits granted to him and Isabella by Pope Alexander VI. Cabot, seeing that nothing more was to be

done, left England for Spain. Henry VII. was, however, anxious to promote the growth of the English navy. To this end he forbade the importation of French wines in other than English ships with native crews. Henry VIII. pursued his father's policy of ship-building, but mostly for warlike purposes. Cabot returned to England in his reign, and an expedition was sent to go round Newfoundland to India. After its failure Sebastian again went to Spain, whence he came once more in the reign of Edward VI. Under his direction Willoughby and Chancellor set out, in search this time of a north-east passage to Cathay. They started on the 10th of May, 1553, just before the young king's death. Their ships were separated, and Willoughby's was frozen in on the coast of Lapland. None of his company ever returned to tell their adventures, though it is known that he and some others were still alive in January, 1554. They were among the first of the "heroic sailors" who gave their bones to the "white north," and left their memory as an inspiring legacy to their countrymen. Chancellor reached Archangel by the White Sea, and was favourably received by the Czar, who agreed to a treaty of commerce. The search after Cathay was given up for the time, and a trade was opened with Russia, extending thence by way of the Caspian Sea to Persia, and eventually to India.

Voyages in Queen Elizabeth's Reign.—Queen Elizabeth built ships, and encouraged her subjects to build them, as, notwithstanding the efforts of her predecessors, vessels of any size had hitherto been mostly bought abroad. In her reign the English began seriously to compete in commerce with other nations. Frobisher,

Davis, Hudson, and others, made many discoveries while trying for the vain one of a north-east or north-west passage to India; and from 1577 to 1580 Drake, first of all Englishmen, sailed round the world.

Sir Humphry Gilbert's Charter, 1578.—Sir Humphry Gilbert also made various attempts to obtain royal countenance for a renewed search for Cathay by way of North America. He wrote a "discourse to prove" that there must be such a passage, showing, on the authority of Plato's *Atlantis*, that America was necessarily an island, and the way round it to India shorter and easier than the usual route. He obtained a charter, the first granted for colonization by the Crown of England, in 1578, nearly twenty years after he originally asked for one, and at last led an expedition in 1582. In one of his petitions he had pleaded against delay, as "the wings of man's life are plumed with the feathers of death." So he was indeed to find. He was returning home, after an unsuccessful attempt to plant a colony in Newfoundland, when his ship suddenly foundered in the sight of her consort. His last words, heard whilst they were labouring in great peril, were, "We are as near to heaven by sea as by land."

The charter granted to Sir Humphry Gilbert gave to him and his heirs authority to discover and take in possession any country not actually possessed by any Christian prince, on condition of homage to the crown of England, and payment of the fifth part of whatever gold or silver might be found, since precious metals were looked upon as the chief good to be gained. The discovery of a country inhabited by heathens was considered at that time, and for long afterwards, as the only title required for its possession by the sovereign

of the discoverers. That the natives should be converted was generally viewed as a necessary sequel to their being robbed, and more than a justification for it. Any defence of their rights was thought a crime. Hakluyt speaks of "such stubborn savages as shall refuse obedience to her majesty." Ralegh hoped to establish trade by peaceful means, but planned other ways as well. And in a dialogue written by Bacon, he makes one of his characters say "that wild and savage people are like beasts and birds, which are *feræ naturæ*, the property of which passeth with the possession, and goeth to the occupant," and this statement met with no contradiction.

Ralegh's Charter, 1584.—The year after Gilbert's death, his half-brother, Sir Walter Ralegh, obtained a similar charter. The only difference was this: Gilbert was authorized to seize all ships that should come without leave into his harbours, unless they belonged to England, or to countries at amity with her, and were driven by tempest. In Ralegh's charter those trading to Newfoundland for fish are also excepted, which bears witness to the growth of that trade.

Ralegh sent two barks to explore the coast north of Florida, and they brought back such a splendid description of the country they had visited that Queen Elizabeth desired it to be called "Virginia," in her own honour. The name originally covered a much larger territory than it now does, and the first attempts at settlement were made in what is at present North Carolina.

First Attempt at a Settlement, 1585.—Ralegh, interested though he was in the scheme of colonization, was not able to leave England. But in 1585 he sent out seven

ships, under Sir Richard Grenville, who established a colony of one hundred and eighty persons on the island of Roanoke, with Ralph Lane as governor. During their nine months' stay, their only thought was to find gold and silver. They neglected to raise provisions for themselves, and were entirely dependent on the natives for food. When they found that they had been deceived by the natives, as to the existence of mines, they attacked them, and of course got no more supplies. They were only saved from starvation by the opportune coming of Drake, who took them all back to England. Just after they had gone, Grenville returned with three ships. He could not find out what had become of the colony, and left fifteen men to keep possession, who were afterwards killed by the natives.

This attempt was not altogether fruitless; for Hariot, one of the colonists, described the country and its productions in a much more accurate manner than had hitherto been usual. Another result was the introduction into England of the use of tobacco. It had been brought to other parts of Europe by the Spaniards; but Ralegh learnt the practice of smoking from his colonists, and it soon became general.

Second Attempt at a Settlement.—In 1587 Ralegh sent a larger number of colonists, who, having women and children among them, seemed more like a real plantation. On their arrival they found that they were in want of many necessaries, and sent back their leader, Captain John White, to procure them. When he reached England there was no thought or money to be had but for the repulsion of the Armada. He was very anxious to return speedily, having left in Virginia his daughter and her husband, the parents of the first

English child born in America, "Virginia Dare." But he did not succeed even in getting a passage for himself until 1590. When he arrived, he could find no trace of the colony, and the ship would not wait for any search to be made. Sixteen years later, when the first permanent settlement was founded, the colonists heard that some of the former settlers had been killed, and some had gone inland, and were living among the Indians; but nothing more was ever known of them.

Gosnold's Voyage.—In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold went from Falmouth direct to North America, all previous expeditions having taken the route by the West Indies and Gulf of Florida. He sailed farther north than Ralegh's expeditions, and brought back a favourable report of the country round Massachusetts Bay, as well as a valuable cargo of sassafras root, then much thought of as a medicine.

Richard Hakluyt.—So far no attempt had been successful; but the spirit of enterprize was thoroughly aroused. Nothing did more to keep it alive than the exertions of Richard Hakluyt, Prebendary of Westminster, who published a number of voyages made by English, Spanish, and Portuguese seamen. It is said to be the map in this collection which is thus alluded to in *Twelfth Night:* "He does smile his face into more lines than are in the new map with the augmentation of the Indies."

CHAPTER II.

FOUNDATION OF THE OLD AMERICAN COLONIES. 1606–1733.

In 1606 James I. granted charters for the colonization of America to two companies. The "London Company," among the members of which were Richard Hakluyt, Sir George Summers, and Captain John Smith, were granted what was called "South Virginia;" and the "Plymouth Company" obtained "North Virginia." These districts included the whole territory of the thirteen original States.

Virginia. 1606.

The London Company was the first to set to work. Its colony was to be governed by a Council in Virginia, subordinate to one in England; both were to be named by the king. This, though various immunities as to duties on home and foreign produce were secured, was practically a despotism.

On the 19th of December, 1606, a party of one hundred and twenty-five men sailed from England, among whom there were a few mechanics and labourers. They were driven north of their intended destination, Roanoke, and, sailing up James River, they founded James Town, the first English town in

the New World. It never flourished, as its situation was unfavourable. It has been said of it: "There are places at which the laws have said there shall be towns, but Nature has said there shall not." The names of the governing council had been placed in a box, which was not to be opened until after the colonists had landed. Thus there was no authority on board, and jealousies arose, particularly of Smith, who was the ablest of the number. However, when the colonists became involved in troubles with the Indians, and suffered from scarcity, they made him their governor. He succeeded in defeating some of the Indians, and made friends with others. In one of his expeditions of discovery he was taken prisoner to Powhatan, a chief who exercised such authority over the neighbouring tribes, that the English spoke of him as Emperor. Smith was condemned to death; but Pocahontas, the chief's daughter, a girl of twelve or thirteen, flung her arms round him, and declared that she would die with him. Her father granted Smith's life, and after a time his liberty, to her prayers. When he returned to the colony he found it reduced to thirty-eight people, who were all bent on leaving. He persuaded them to remain, and shortly afterwards a hundred new settlers arrived from England, with tools and other things, of which the want had been greatly felt. Unfortunately, however, they found in a stream some shining substance, which they took to be gold. Every useful labour was given up in the search for this, and the first vessel which went to England was laden with the rubbish supposed to be ore. The natural result was, that the colonists again suffered from scarcity. They had cleared hardly thirty acres, and were dependent on

the natives for supplies. Smith went to open relations with new tribes, and travelled over great part of what is now Virginia and Maryland.

People at home hesitated to emigrate on account of the constitution of the company, but in 1609 a more liberal charter was granted. The proprietors were authorized to elect the London Council, which was to legislate for the colony, and to appoint a governor.

Summers and Gates wrecked on the Bermudas.—As Lord Delaware, the first governor chosen, could not leave England at once, Sir Thomas Gates and Sir George Summers were sent to take his place for a time. They had with them nine ships and five hundred colonists. The vessel carrying Gates and Summers, with all the papers and new instructions, was separated from the rest and wrecked on the Bermudas, which thence received their alternative name of "Summers' Islands." The others arrived safely in Virginia. One government was considered at an end, and no other established; thus lawlessness prevailed. The Indians in consequence, instead of bringing provisions, attacked the settlers, who were reduced to the greatest straits, and in less than six months only sixty of them remained. Smith had been much injured by an accidental explosion of gunpowder, and went to England for medical treatment.

Meanwhile of the one hundred and fifty people supposed to have been lost with Gates and Summers not one had perished. They had saved their stores, and built two barks of Bermudian cedar, using the fittings of their own ship. But on reaching Virginia they found the colonists at the last extremity. Including the provisions the new-comers had brought,

there was barely a fortnight's supply. They therefore abandoned the settlement and started for Newfoundland, in hope of being assisted by the English employed in the fisheries. In the James River, however, they met Lord Delaware with three ships loaded with necessaries. They returned with him; and from this date, 1611, the colony may be considered as fairly established. In 1612, by a new charter, all islands within three hundred leagues of the coast were granted to the Virginia Company; and they took possession of the Bermudas, which they did not keep long. They were authorized to raise money for this enterprise by a lottery. This is the first time in English history that such a permission is met with. It was recalled, as Parliament objected to it.

The Indians accept English Sovereignty.—The attention of the colonists was now turned to the cultivation of land; they were no longer dependent upon the natives for food, and made treaties of friendship with them. The Indians even agreed to become subjects of the king of England, though it may be doubted if they understood what this meant. The friendship was cemented by the marriage of Pocahontas to Mr. Rolfe, a young Englishman of good position in the colony. She went to England with her husband, and was kindly received by the king and queen; but, unhappily, died when on the point of returning to America.

The land was divided in 1613 into small lots, and became private property. It had previously been cultivated for the common benefit with unsatisfactory results.

Extensive Cultivation of Tobacco.—In 1616 the

cultivation of tobacco was introduced, and brought large profits; although, owing to its inferiority to that grown in the Spanish West Indies, it sold for only three shillings a pound, while the price of the other was eighteen shillings. For this source of gain everything else was laid aside; tobacco was planted everywhere, even in the streets of James Town, and actually became the currency of the colony. Food in consequence once more became scarce. The Indians were pressed for it in a manner which awoke their hatred to the English, and made them eager for revenge. Still everything looked outwardly promising; more Englishwomen came to Virginia; the colonists married, and began to consider their new country as their home.

Introduction of Negro Slaves.—In 1620 a Dutch ship arrived with a cargo of negroes, and sold some of them to the planters. The abominable traffic was no new thing, but this was its first introduction into English America, where it was to prove such a root of bitterness. A sort of white slavery existed in the form of indentured servants, and Captain Smith complains that "the number of felons and vagabonds transported did bring such evil character on the place that some did choose to be hanged ere they would go there, and were." The number of convicts sent out was never very large. There is a proclamation of Charles II. against the kidnapping of his subjects and carrying them by force to the plantations in America.

In 1619 the first general assembly of representatives was held, of which it was quaintly said, "A house of burgesses broke out in Virginia."

Attack by the Indians on Virginia.—The English, living in all security, were, in 1622, suddenly attacked

by the Indians, who had been planning revenge for years. Nearly a quarter of their number were killed, and many more would have perished had not a Christian Indian warned his master, who alarmed James Town. The retaliation of the English was more treacherous and cruel than the Indian onslaught. Indeed the whole history of the treatment of subject races by colonists is a very painful one, and not in those early times only; all the more so from the complacent way in which it is usually recorded. The Virginians dilated upon the advantages of the attack having been made, as "the way of conquering them is much more easy than that of civilizing them by fair means; for they are a rude, barbarous, and naked people, scattered in small companies, which are helps to victory, but hindrances to civility." And then follows a description of the many horrible ways in which their conquest—or rather their utter destruction—might be effected.

James I. withdraws the Virginia Charter.—The first liberties of Virginia were of short duration. James I., angry at the political discussions which took place in England at the meetings of the London Company, had its charter quashed in 1624, and thus the government fell into his own hands. Charles I. followed in his father's footsteps, and Virginia had no law but his will. Sir William Berkeley, a very decided Royalist, was appointed governor in 1642, and continued in office almost continuously until 1677. He is praised by some historians, but his character may perhaps be judged by his own words: "Learning has brought disobedience, heresy, and sects into the world, and printing has divulged them. God keep us from both." The growth and prosperity of the colony under his government seem

to have been owing to the fact that the King granted more freedom to the colonists, influenced probably by the spirit rising in England. At the beginning of the Civil War the population had increased to above 20,000. Many of Charles's party sought refuge in Virginia; this, as well as gratitude for his favours, gave the colony a Royalist character. It did not acknowledge the authority of Parliament until a squadron was sent to reduce it.

The Navigation Act.—In 1651 Parliament passed the first "Navigation Act." This forbade the colonies to import the productions of other countries except in English vessels, or (in the case of European commodities) those of the country from which they came. This law was directed against the Dutch, who had at that time, as the English have now, by far the largest share of the carrying trade. The colonies were further forbidden to export certain "enumerated articles" except to England and her possessions. They vainly hoped that these laws might be repealed under Charles II., but they were instead re-enacted in 1663. Subsequently "enumerated articles" sent from one colony to another were made liable to a duty to the English government. Virginia was nearly ruined by the cutting off of the tobacco trade with Holland, and rose in insurrection, under Nathaniel Bacon, in 1676. After some success, the sudden death of their leader dispersed the rebels. The revolt was punished with great severity by Sir William Berkeley, of whom Charles II. said, that he had "taken away more lives in that naked country than I for the murder of my father." All ideas of of liberty were crushed; it was made penal to find fault in any manner with the government. Never-

theless the colony prospered, as the demand for tobacco had greatly increased. For its cultivation everything else was given up, and only the land suitable for it was utilized. No manufactures were introduced; all industry was turned in the one money-making direction. The children were taught scarcely anything, and until the establishment of a college by William and Mary there was no public provision for education.

New England. 1620.

The history of the New England colonies is very different from the preceding one. Captain John Smith, having returned to America, made a map of "North Virginia," which he called "New England." At his request Prince Charles (afterwards Charles I.) gave names which in some instances are still kept, such as "Charles River" and "Cape Ann." Various early and unsuccessful attempts were made to found settlements on Massachusetts Bay. The difficulties were too great to be overcome by such a motive as gold hunger. A nobler passion was required for the purpose—the desire of liberty, religious and civil. A congregation of Independents, "Brownists," as they were usually called at that time, had taken refuge in Holland. They desired to find a place where they could lead an English life in accordance with their own convictions, and entered into negotiations with the "London Company." An agreement was made, by which the company was to furnish what was necessary for the expedition. The services of each emigrant were to be reckoned equivalent to a capital of £10, and at the end of seven years the profits were to be divided according to the money invested. It was this arrangement, and not as has been

supposed, the puritanical ideas of the settlers, which led to their land being cultivated in common. We have seen that the same system originally prevailed in Virginia. These emigrants had no royal charter, and never succeeded in obtaining one.

The Pilgrim Fathers.—After various delays the little band of those who were to become known to history as the "Pilgrim Fathers," sailed, in the *May-flower*, from Plymouth, 6th September, 1620—men, women, and children, one hundred and two all told. They anchored at Cape Cod on November 11th, and after some exploring landed in December. They named their settlement Plymouth, in remembrance of the last place where they had been in England. Their early history is one of great want and sickness, and of courage and endurance equally great. Only twenty men survived the first winter, and they were fain to sow corn over the graves of their companions, lest the Indians should see how many they had lost. Troubles arose with the Indians, principally caused by the misconduct of other settlers sent out by the Company. In the third year of the colony we hear of their having one fishing-boat, which obtained their principal supply of food. Two years later they sent to England a cargo of salt fish, and in two years more they had a regular trade with the Dutch settlers on the Hudson. They bought skins from the natives, and glass works were early established at Salem.

Colony of Massachusetts, 1630.—The founders of Plymouth were poor and unpretending, and had nothing to do with politics. But it was otherwise with the founders of the Massachusetts Bay colony, some of whom, such as Hampden and Pym, were men of

great note in England, and are supposed to have looked upon it as a possible refuge for themselves. Sir Harry Vane the younger was himself in New England for a time. A royal charter was obtained for the colonists in the names of several of their number—John Endicott, an early governor, being one. About a thousand people reached Massachusetts in 1630, by which time the Plymouth colony had increased to three hundred. Charles Town was their first settlement; but finding the water bad they moved to Boston. During the first winter they suffered much privation, and a day in February was appointed as a "fast." On its eve a vessel arrived from England with provisions, and the fast was changed into a "thanksgiving."

Dealings with the Indians.—The historians of New England say that the Indians had no provocation to outrages, as no land in their possession was taken but by purchase. The greater part of that occupied by the colonists had been depopulated by smallpox before their coming. Vattel, a Swiss writer on the "Law of Nations," lauds their moderation in having bought the land from the savages, "though furnished with a charter from their sovereign." It may be questioned whether the Indians, with their migratory habits, understood the permanent and undivided possession which the English meant by their purchase. The colonists seem to have wished to be just in their dealings with them. We have an instance, in September, 1631, when Josias Plastowe, "for stealing four baskets of corn from the Indians," was fined and ordered to restore double, and was sentenced "herewith to be called by the name of Josias, and not Mr., as formerly he used to be."

Massachusetts established a religious test for office, none but "church members" being eligible. In 1631 among other new settlers John Eliot came out, who was to be known as "the apostle of the Indians." In the following year Boston was fortified. Corn was made a legal tender "except money or beaver be expressly named."

Many joined the colony to escape the Laudian persecutions, and it is supposed that above 20,000 had settled in New England before 1640. The English Government, seeing how strong it was growing, tried to make its charter of no effect by giving power over the colony to commissioners at home. The answer of Massachusetts in 1635 was to prepare for war; but Charles I. had too much on his hands to attempt to carry out his decrees.

Intolerance.—Meanwhile Massachusetts had been acting in a most high-handed manner, and had expelled some Church of England members from the colony. It is suggested that this was owing to the dread that they might grow into a congregation, bringing a bishop who would claim authority over the whole people; and that having given up so much for the sake of liberty of conscience, the colonists would naturally not permit anything they thought likely to endanger it. This must be borne in mind when considering the intolerance of a community, whose very existence was a protest against the intolerance of others. But still they seem to have struggled as much for uniformity as did any who persecuted them; and when Dudley, one of the founders of the colony, died, in 1653, some lines, of which the following are part, were found in his pocket—

"Let men of God in courts and churches watch
O'er such as do a toleration hatch,
Lest that ill egg bring forth a cockatrice,
To poison all with heresy and vice."

Education.—In 1636 the Court of Massachusetts voted £400 towards a school or college. This is said to have been "the first body in which the people by their representatives ever gave their own money to found a place of education." In 1647 every town of fifty householders was ordered to provide a school to teach reading and writing, and where there were a hundred a grammar school was required.

Manufactories and Trade.—Cotton, brought from the West Indies, and wool from their own sheep, were spun by the women; and in 1638 some immigrant Yorkshire weavers set up a loom. Everywhere the woods were valuable; turpentine and pitch, boards and masts, were procured from the pine forests, and sold readily. Furs and skins got from the natives were among the earliest exports.

Legislation.—In 1639 the first printing-press in British America was set up at Cambridge, near Boston. In 1641 a code of a hundred fundamental laws was drawn up, founded in great measure upon the law of Moses. It has been spoken of as very harsh, but only ten crimes were made capital; while in England at that time there were thirty. The law of treason makes no reference to the king, but treats the government of Massachusetts as sovereign. Plymouth had already made a code in 1636.

Connecticut. 1636.

Meanwhile other colonies were founded by settlers from Plymouth and Massachusetts. "Connecticut," on

usetts, was granted to Captain John Mason, and lonized in 1631. The first settlers attempted grape lture, with very little success. They were few in num-r, and being left to their own resources after Mason's ath, suffered much from the Indians. They were re-forced by the Antinomians, who were expelled from assachusetts.

Maine.

Maine was originally granted to Sir Ferdinando rges; its riches consisted of fisheries. It is impos-le to say when it began to be regularly inhabited. andering fishermen were its first inhabitants, and ne of them may have gone there as early as 1626.

onfederation of Four Colonies.—In 1643 Plymouth, achusetts, Connecticut, and Newhaven formed selves into the confederation of "The New Eng-Colonies" for common defence against the French, h, and Swedes, who had lands on their borders. united population at this time probably amounted out 24,000, of which Massachusetts had consider-nore than half. The following year the first ship t Boston took a cargo of fish to Spain, and came aden with wine, oil, and other articles.

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the river of the same name, was planted at the request of some Indians, about 1636. It did not increase very rapidly, partly on account of the hostility of another tribe. "Newhaven," which eventually became one with it, was colonized in 1638.

Providence and Rhode Island. 1652.

In 1636 Roger Williams, a young Independent minister, asserted the doctrine of complete religious liberty. For so doing he was turned out of Salem, and sentenced to be banished to England. He wandered among the Indians for many weeks in winter; but as he had always stood their friend, they helped him in his distress, and with five other men and their families he founded "Providence." The next year he established a republican form of government, which was confirmed by a charter obtained in 1652, and which is still the law of the state. Anne Hutchinson was expelled from Massachusetts for similar reasons a little later than Williams. She obtained "Rhode Island" from the Indians, and founded a colony, which was united with Providence in 1644. The settlers were very poor, and obliged to work hard for mere subsistence; their earliest records were written on little scraps of paper. They speedily prospered, however, owing in great measure to the regard in which Williams was held by the Indians. The latter thus became a source of strength, whereas in most other colonies they were an element of danger. The religious liberty allowed attracted many to Rhode Island. A large number of French Protestants went there in 1685, after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

New Hampshire.

New Hampshire, really part of the territory of Massa-

chusetts, was granted to Captain John Mason, and colonized in 1631. The first settlers attempted grape culture, with very little success. They were few in number, and being left to their own resources after Mason's death, suffered much from the Indians. They were reinforced by the Antinomians, who were expelled from Massachusetts.

Maine.

Maine was originally granted to Sir Ferdinando Gorges; its riches consisted of fisheries. It is impossible to say when it began to be regularly inhabited. Wandering fishermen were its first inhabitants, and some of them may have gone there as early as 1626.

Confederation of Four Colonies.—In 1643 Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Newhaven formed themselves into the confederation of "The New England Colonies" for common defence against the French, Dutch, and Swedes, who had lands on their borders. Their united population at this time probably amounted to about 24,000, of which Massachusetts had considerably more than half. The following year the first ship built at Boston took a cargo of fish to Spain, and came back laden with wine, oil, and other articles.

Prosperity of the Colonies.—New England steadily increased in prosperity, although many colonists (notably Sir H. Vane) returned to England during the Civil War. Notwithstanding her Puritan sympathies, she did not acknowledge the authority of Parliament, or proclaim either of the two Protectors. In 1652 a mint was established, which was nearly equivalent to a declaration of independence. The silver brought from the West Indies was coined, and this continued for thirty years. Cromwell wished to transfer the

colonists to Ireland, and later to Jamaica; but their new country had become their home, and they preferred to stay there. The Navigation Act was not pressed upon them as it was upon Virginia. The latter colony remained attached to the royal cause, and trade with it was forbidden by Parliament. Massachusetts gave orders to the same effect, which emphasized the ill-feeling that had long existed between the two colonies.

Loss of Liberties under Charles II. and James II.—After the Restoration, three of the regicides took refuge in New England. The authorities allowed search to be made for them; but it was unsuccessful, as they were always warned beforehand. Charles II. endeavoured to establish his jurisdiction. Several of the colonies yielded, and he gave them charters and privileges. Massachusetts acknowledged the king in words only. In 1665 the population of New England is calculated to have been from 40,000 to 45,000. There were ninety towns, mostly on the coast, and a very large trade. For nearly ten years there were scarcely any relations with England. But between 1673 and 1676 a great war raged with the Indians, known as Philip's War, from the name of the chief who led it. This drained the resources of Massachusetts, and the opportunity was taken to reduce the colony to obedience. An agent was sent out, and in 1684 the charter was declared void, one reason being the systematic neglect of the Navigation Laws. Massachusetts was therefore considered to become the property of the crown, by virtue of its discovery by Cabot. Sir Edmund Andros, who had been governor of New York, was appointed, in 1686, as governor of all the New England States. Connecticut was at first excepted, but was

added the next year. Andros is said, on the one hand, to have been "a good, moral man, but for his bigotry to Popery and arbitrary power;" on the other, he is compared with Nero, greatly to the advantage of the latter. In any case, his government was sure to be disliked, and when the news came that the Prince of Orange had landed in England, the people rose against Andros, and forced him to surrender. William would not at once grant them all they asked; but Andros was recalled, and the former magistrates were restored to office.

Maryland. 1634.

Maryland was part of the territory originally included in Virginia; but after the charter of that colony was cancelled it was given to Lord Baltimore. He was a Roman Catholic, and had been shut out from the planting of Virginia by a law made to exclude people of that religion. His grant was in consideration of a tribute to the crown of the fifth part of the gold and silver found, and the yearly rent of two Indian arrows. The latter was merely an acknowledgment that he held the land from the king, and resembled many old tenures in England. Religious liberty and a share in the government were promised to emigrants. The colony was named "Maryland," after the queen of Charles I., known in English history by her Latinized name of "Henrietta Maria." Lord Baltimore died before the settlement was begun; but his son carried out his ideas. In 1634 a plantation of about two hundred people, principally Roman Catholics, was made in friendship with the Indians. As provisions could be obtained from Virginia, no hardships were endured, and the colony flourished at once. While elsewhere,

all over the world, Christians persecuted each other, the governor of Maryland was required to take an oath not to "molest any person professing to believe in Jesus Christ for or in respect of religion." And a law forbade "reproaching any with opprobrious names of religious distinctions" under penalty of a fine, to be paid to the person so injured. Hence Maryland became a refuge for the persecuted. Under the Commonwealth, however, Lord Baltimore was dispossessed, and the Protestant colonists, being the majority, most ungratefully made laws against the Roman Catholics. At the Restoration, in 1660, Lord Baltimore returned to power. At this time there are said to have been 12,000 inhabitants in the colony. After the Revolution, intolerance once more got the upper hand, and the English statutes against Romanists were enforced. The descendants of Lord Baltimore eventually became Protestants, and their rights were restored to them to a certain extent. Tobacco was the principal production of Maryland.

North and South Carolina. 1663.

The plantation of the Carolinas comes next, but considerably later, although Ralegh's attempts at the settlement which he called Virginia were made in that territory. In 1663 Lord Clarendon and several others obtained a charter from Charles II., but the colony did not prosper for many years. This was in great measure owing to quarrels between the settlers and the proprietors. The charter was ultimately withdrawn from the latter, and the Crown took possession.

About the end of the seventeenth century, rice, destined to prove the riches of the colony, was intro-

duced from Madagascar. The trade was sadly hampered by the Navigation Act, which compelled the rice to be brought to England, and there transhipped for the other European markets. North and South Carolina were not divided until 1728.

New York, New Jersey, and Delaware. 1664.

These colonies were taken by England from the Dutch in 1664. They had been planted in 1629 as the New Netherlands, and lay about the Hudson river, having New England on the north, and the other English colonies on the south. The Swedes had been before the Dutch in Delaware, but were forced to submit to their authority. Part of the territory was called "New York," in honour of the Duke of York, to whom it was granted by his brother, Charles II. When he became King it passed to the Crown. Another portion was allotted to Sir George Carteret, representative of an old and distinguished Jersey family, and by him named "New Jersey." Settlers came thither from New England as well as from Europe; but progress was hindered by perpetual disputes between the proprietors and the colonists. In the reign of Queen Anne the former gave their rights up to the Crown. Delaware was for a time united to Pennsylvania. The whole sea-coast of the thirteen original "States" now belonged to England.

Pennsylvania. 1683.

The next colony to be planted was Pennsylvania. William Penn received a grant of the land in 1681, as payment of a claim for £16,000 upon the English Government, which his father had left him. He went out with one hundred settlers, the greater part being

Quakers; and in 1683 made a treaty with the Indians, of which Voltaire said that it was the only one not sworn to, and the only one that was never broken. Neither was there any written record of it kept, but justice and kindness proved firmer bonds than oaths and parchment. Penn drew up the constitution, which gave him no revenue, and made all his acts as governor subject to the approval of a council, elected by the people. "To this day the essential principles remain without change." No colony increased so rapidly. In two years Philadelphia, the chief town, had six hundred houses and a printing-press. Twelve years after its settlement the white population of Pennsylvania numbered 20,000. Negro slavery was adopted in the beginning as in the other states; but before many years passed it was seen in its true light, and the Quakers were the first to set free their slaves.

Twelve of the thirteen original States were thus planted before the English revolution in 1688 (though the Carolinas were not yet divided). The land which afterwards became Georgia was included in the territory of Carolina.

These twelve were: Virginia, Massachusetts (including Plymouth and Maine), Connecticut, Rhode Island (including Providence), New Hampshire, Maryland, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Pennsylvania. Their united population at that time is estimated at 200,000.

Georgia. 1733.

A great part of the land of Carolina was still vacant in 1733. It was granted by the English Government to a company, which colonized it under the name of

Georgia. Only poor Protestants were invited to emigrate, and they were placed under many regulations and restrictions. Land was to be forfeited if not cleared in a certain time; no one person might hold more than a fixed quantity; it must be entailed on heirs male, and so on. Besides this, in order to force the colonists to exertion, slavery was forbidden. General Oglethorpe, the leader of the colony, treated the Indians well, and won their favour. But there were for a time difficulties with the Spaniards, who claimed the country as part of Florida. The colony did not prosper. The English, seeing slaves in Carolina, objected to work for themselves. Possibly they were not able for the labour required to cultivate rice and cotton in a climate to which they were unaccustomed. There was large immigration, not only of English and Scotch, but of Swiss and also of South Germans, driven abroad by religious persecutions. More than one thousand settlers arrived in Georgia in the first year or two; but it did not increase in proportion, as many of them left for Carolina, which grew rapidly. In 1752 the company resigned its rights to the Crown, as it had spent much money, and more was still required.

These colonies may be classed in three divisions:

1. Royal governments, where the Crown named the governor.

2. Proprietory governments, where the power of the Crown was given to one man or a small body of men. These often fell into the hands of the Crown on account of quarrels between colonists and proprietors, and so on.

3. Charter governments, where the Crown granted a charter to the representatives of the people. These were practically republics.

CHAPTER III.

INDIA.

FROM THE FOUNDATION OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY, 1600, TO THE END OF THE WAR WITH THE FRENCH, 1761.

PERIOD OF COMMERCE ONLY, 1600–1748.

WE generally restrict the name *colony* to those places in which the settlers become permanent inhabitants, and obtain possession of some considerable portion of the soil. The common acceptation here agrees with the original meaning of the word. India, which does not fulfil these conditions, is, however, officially termed a "Crown colony." In such the administration is entirely under the authority of the Home Government.

The first intercourse of England with India was simply one of commerce. There was no idea of making settlements other than for convenience of trade—*factories*, as they were called from the factors or mercantile agents who lived there; nor was the acquisition of territory, by conquest or otherwise, thought of. Soldiers were employed, it is true, some English and some natives, but only for defensive purposes.

The Portuguese, in order to monopolize Eastern trade, had given out that there was great difficulty in passing the Cape of Good Hope; but Sir Francis Drake in his

voyage round the world found this to be false. He had traded with the Moluccas, and visited Java, and a desire to share in the valuable traffic turned English adventure in that direction. Several voyages were made for this purpose, but they were rather expeditions to plunder the Portuguese than for legitimate commerce.

Beginning of the Dutch Trade with India.—The Russian Company already imported Indian goods by way of Persia, and in 1589 some merchants applied to Queen Elizabeth for leave to open direct communication with India; but it was not until the last day of December, 1600, that a charter was granted. In the interim the Dutch had entered the field. An Englishman, Will Adams, acted as their pilot, in 1598, by way of the Straits of Magellan. After various adventures he reached Japan, where he remained for the rest of his life. His tomb is still to be seen there, and a street in Yedo bears a Japanese version of his name, "Anjin Cho." As long as the Dutch were subject to Spain, their merchants obtained Indian goods from Lisbon; but when they had thrown off the yoke, Philip II. forbade this commercial intercourse, Portugal being at that time a Spanish dependency. The injury that he wished to do them recoiled on his own head; for being driven to a direct trade with India, they nearly ruined that of the Portuguese, hitherto very flourishing. The dislike of the natives to the Portuguese, who had behaved badly to them in many ways, was advantageous to the Dutch, and they made several settlements.

Foundation of the East India Company, 1600.—The first charter of the English East India Company was much like other commercial charters of the time. It

conferred upon the Company the exclusive right of trading to all parts of the Indies not already occupied by a European power, and gave certain privileges as to remission of duties. It was only granted for a fixed number of years, but it was renewed at different periods during the whole of the 17th century. The term "Indies" included all places from the Cape of Good Hope eastward to the Straits of Magellan.

The first fleet set out in May, 1601. It consisted of four vessels, and was commanded by Captain Lancaster, who had led one of the earlier expeditions. They went to Achin, an important city in Sumatra, where they made a favourable treaty, as they did also at Bantam, in Java. Agents were left at both places, and the fleet returned to England with large profits. Several other voyages were made during the next ten years, almost all very successful, the gain being as a rule more than a hundred per cent on the capital expended. This trade was entirely with the Indian islands, Sumatra, Java, and Amboyna. All attempts at intercourse with the mainland were for some time frustrated by the Portuguese; but in January, 1613, the Emperor Jehangir gave the English leave to establish a factory at Surat, the principal port of his empire. This was their first settlement on the continent of India.

Notwithstanding the immense profits made by the Company, its revenue does not seem to have been large. The reason for this appears to be that at this time the greater share of English energy and money was directed towards America.

Quarrels between the English and Dutch Traders.—There was much rivalry with the Dutch, who though they had concluded a treaty for a divided possession of

the islands, had always been jealous of the presence of the English. This reached a crisis in 1623, in what has been called the massacre of Amboyna, when ten Englishmen were put to death by the Dutch authorities for an alleged conspiracy against them. Remonstrances made at the time had no effect. During the war between England and Holland, in the days of Cromwell, English trade was for some time almost stopped, owing to the naval superiority of the latter nation. But when peace was made the Amboyna difficulty was once more brought forward, and a small compensation was awarded to the heirs of the sufferers.

Growth of the Company's Powers. — In 1640 a factory was established at Hooghly, near Calcutta, to which place it was removed in the end of the century; and another was set up at Madras, where, by permission of the local native chief, the building of Fort St. George was begun.

When Charles II. renewed the charter in 1661, he gave the company civil and criminal jurisdiction, according to English law. In the same year the island of Bombay was ceded to him by Portugal, as part of the dowry of his wife, Catharine of Braganza. The expense of government proved greater than the profit, and he granted it to the Company, in 1668, for "the annual rent of £10 in gold."

In 1685 the Emperor Aurungzebe was enraged by hostilities between the English and his own subjects, and determined to drive out the foreigners. Their factory at Surat was seized, as well as the greater part of Bombay, and the governor was besieged in his castle. The English yielded upon every disputed point, and their factories were restored to them. The value of their

trade to the Moguls was probably the reason for this. The seat of government was now transferred from Surat to Bombay, which was given authority over the other settlements on the western coast. Madras had for some time been the Company's principal emporium on the east, as the Dutch had expelled the English from Java.

During this period the French, who only came to India in 1664, fortified the settlement which they had made at Pondicherry.

In 1689 the directors declared for the first time that dominion as well as trade was to be aimed at for the establishment of their independence; but they did not take any steps to carry out these views.

A rival company was set up in the closing years of the seventeenth century, and notice was given to the first company that its charter must cease. Instead of this, however, the two were amalgamated; the arrangements were not finished until 1708. The old company gained by this change, as the new one brought a large additional capital.

At this time there were three presidencies, Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta, which were independent of each other, and only responsible to the Company in England.

The Dutch alone were settled in the Spice Islands, and spices formed the chief part of their commerce. The English and French traded principally in manufactured goods, such as silks and muslins, and the raw materials from which they were made; and English manufacturers complained greatly of the competition to which they were subjected.

After England was freed from the burden of the long war with France wealth increased, which was one

cause why the Company flourished commercially during the first half of the eighteenth century. Still there was nothing to foretell the greatness and dominion to which it was shortly to rise. India to Englishmen meant a few settlements along the coast of an almost unknown land. But it was becoming evident, both in the east and the west, that there must be a struggle between England and France as to which should be the colonizing power. The Portuguese were no longer to be considered as rivals; the Dutch did not seek to enlarge their borders; the question was, whether America was to be New England or New France, and in the hands of which country was to rest the dominion of Indian trade.

War between the English and French in India. 1748–1761.

The first collision between England and France in India came in 1748. During the war of the Austrian succession, Labourdonnais, the French Governor of Mauritius, carried the war into India and compelled Madras to capitulate. It was agreed that the town should be restored on payment of a ransom; but in Labourdonnais' absence, Dupleix, governor of Pondicherry, refused to fulfil the condition. Madras was, however, given back a few months later, when peace was made between England and France.

Collapse of the Mogul Empire.—The great empire which the Moguls had established in India, early in the sixteenth century, had been breaking up ever since the death of Aurungzebe, in 1707. Viceroys became hereditary sovereigns, and made war among themselves. Dupleix, who was both clever and am-

bitious, saw the possibility of raising another empire on the ruins of the old, and hoped to make the dissensions of these princes a stepping-stone to power for France. On the occasion of a dispute as to the succession in the Carnatic, a province of south-eastern India, he came to the assistance of one of the claimants, and his adversary was defeated and killed. Dupleix obtained as his reward both territory and the influence that he so much desired. The English, overwhelmed by his successes, did not take any vigorous measures, although for their own sake they countenanced Mahommed Ali, a rival claimant. The struggle dragged on, and when in 1751 Mahommed Ali was driven out of the Carnatic and besieged in Trichinopoli, it seemed as if the French were to have everything their own way.

Siege of Arcot, 1751.—At this moment the tide began to turn. Robert Clive, a young man wild and idle at home, who had been sent to Madras as a clerk in the service of the Company, had joined the army at the outbreak of hostilities. He distinguished himself by great courage on several occasions, and now suggested to the authorities that a diversion should be made by attacking Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic. He was given the command of five hundred soldiers, only two hundred of whom were English, and captured Arcot without a struggle. Directly afterwards he was himself besieged by an army of 10,000 men. For fifty days he and his little garrison held out. Rumours that Arcot would be relieved reached the besieging force; they made a fierce onslaught, which was repulsed with vigour, and the next night they departed.

The warfare continued with varying success. At this time England and France were at peace; it was

only in India that their subjects were fighting. The French East India Company thought that Dupleix was wasting their money in ambitious projects. He was superseded, and in 1754 a treaty favourable to the English was concluded.

Peace did not, however, result from this. Both English and French continued to assist the different native princes whom they favoured. But suddenly English attention was called from Madras to Bengal.

The Black Hole of Calcutta.—Suraja-ad-dowla, the virtually independent Subahdar or Viceroy of Bengal, marched, in 1756, with a large army against Calcutta. The majority of the inhabitants made their escape without any consideration for those left behind, and in two days the fort was taken. The prisoners—one hundred and forty-six men and women—after being told that they should not be harmed, were shut up for the night in a prison called the Black Hole. Only eighteen feet square, with two small barred windows, it was utterly unfit to hold such a number in such a climate. When morning came only twenty-three were left alive. Suraja-ad-dowla meanwhile exulted in his glorious conquest.

The Conquest of Bengal, 1757.—As soon as the terrible tale reached Madras, Clive and a small army were sent by sea to Bengal. He at once regained Calcutta. At this moment news arrived of the breaking out of the Seven Years' War. It seemed probable that the French would come to the assistance of Suraja-ad-dowla, and therefore a treaty was concluded with him. Immediately afterwards Clive took the French settlement of Chandernagore, which lies a little higher up the Hooghly than Calcutta. As this was done against

the wishes of Suraja-ad-dowla, it was felt that peace with him could not be maintained. An agreement was accordingly made with Mir Jaffier, who held very high rank in Bengal, that the Subahdar, with whom he was on bad terms, should be deposed, and he himself put in his place. The English took the field, but received a message from Mir Jaffier that he could not join them as he had promised to do, but would desert with his troops during the battle. Clive had 3,000 men, of whom 1,000 were English, while against him were more than 55,000. He held a council of war; the majority were of his own opinion, that to fight was impossible. He changed his mind, however, and the result was that the battle of Plassy was fought on the 23rd of June, 1757. Clive lost twenty-two soldiers, and annihilated the power of Suraja-ad-dowla. But in the previous negotiations he had stooped to encounter Eastern deceit by perfidy equally great. It seems that he thought himself entitled to use the weapons employed by his adversaries; but no consequent success could justify fraud. As a matter of fact, it is the confidence felt in the word of Englishmen that has done more than anything else to maintain our empire in the East. That empire is considered to date its commencement from the battle of Plassy—a battle which proved the immense advantage possessed by European soldiers and natives trained in European discipline. This fact had been found out by the French; but it was the English who profited by the discovery.

A few days after his defeat, Suraja-ad-dowla was assassinated, and Mir Jaffier took his place, in which he was upheld by the English. He had covenanted to

pay them large sums of money, which he found himself unable to do. He therefore encouraged the designs of the Dutch, who sent an armament from Batavia to Bengal. Before its arrival, Mir Jaffier had again experienced the benefit of Clive's help, in repelling an invasion led by the eldest son of the emperor, afterwards Shah Alam. Under these circumstances he dared not refuse to allow the English to attack the Dutch on his authority—they could scarcely have done so without it, as England and Holland were at peace. Clive was again victorious, and in order not to be driven altogether out of the country, the Dutch consented to pay the whole expenses of the war.

The Difficulties of the English Rule.—The idea of the immense wealth of India has scarcely died away yet. In those days it was the universal belief. It was not understood that the gold and jewels which decked a man's person constituted, rather than indicated, his wealth. He wore them as the most convenient way of keeping his money. The English found themselves put to great expense on account of Mir Jaffier, who appeared incapable of government, and in 1760 his son-in-law, Mir Cassim, was appointed in his stead. Shah Alam had in the meantime succeeded to what was rather a claim than a throne, and again invaded Bengal; but was obliged to retire. He offered great advantages to the English, and they appear to have intended to support him, but were prevented, by want of money and other reasons, from so doing.

The End of the French and English Contest.—The struggle between the English and French in the Carnatic had meanwhile continued, the French at first having the advantage. When war broke out between

the two nations in Europe, the Count de Lally was sent to India with troops, to attack the English there. He arrived in the year after the battle of Plassy. Confident in his own judgment, he disregarded the advice of Bussy, who had rendered most valuable service to the French cause, and indeed quarrelled with the greater number of those with whom he should have acted. However, he took Fort St. David, to the south of Madras, and would probably have taken Madras itself, had he not been delayed by want of money. An English fleet arrived, and he was obliged to abandon the siege. In engagements by sea and land the English and French were in turn victorious. But on January 22nd, 1760, Lally was defeated in the decisive battle of Wandewash, by Colonel, afterwards Sir Eyre, Coote. He retreated on Pondicherry, which was besieged by the English, who had been largely reinforced from home, and after nine months it was starved into surrender, in 1761. On April 5th in that year the last military post that the French had in India yielded, and the struggle was over. At its commencement the French seemed in the best position. They had able leaders; but their home-government thwarted them in every way, and then visited its own shortcomings on their heads. Labourdonnais was imprisoned, Dupleix impoverished, Lally executed. As for the English, in the course of a few years they had been victorious over all their European rivals. They had risen from being merely a tolerated trading company to be the dominant power in the land.

CHAPTER IV.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

THE American colonies of which we have already spoken were almost all of English foundation. We have now to do with others, where, for the most part, the French were first in the field, but were gradually dispossessed by the English. The final struggle took place at the same time that the contest for dominion was going on in India between France and England.

Newfoundland, becomes an English Colony in 1713.

Shortly after Cabot's discovery of Newfoundland and the neighbouring regions in 1496, these coasts were frequented by Norman and Breton fishermen, who preceded those of England. Both England and France founded settlements before the middle of the seventeenth century, and there were constant quarrels between them, until, in 1708, the French made themselves masters of the island. They only kept it until the peace of Utrecht in 1713, when it was ceded to England, and became a Crown colony. Its riches consist solely in its fisheries. Labrador was annexed to its government in 1763.

Hudson's Bay Territory, becomes an English Colony in 1713.

The French were also first in the Hudson's Bay Territory, which was given up to England at the peace of Utrecht. The English Hudson's Bay Company, formed in 1670, had, however, always traded with the Red Indians for furs, in spite of French efforts to dislodge them. Their agents occupied stations or forts, where this trade is still carried on. The country, as a whole, has never been colonized, as the climate is too severe.

Nova Scotia, ceded to England in 1713.

Nova Scotia was claimed by the French, and granted by Henry IV. as "Acadie" to a Huguenot nobleman, who founded a colony there in 1602. Not many years later the colonists were expelled by the English, who held that Cabot's discovery gave them a right to the whole coast of North America. Occupancy was not considered necessary for a title. "All a man sailed by or saw was his own." In 1621 James I. granted Nova Scotia to Sir William Alexander, afterwards Earl of Stirling. In order to obtain money for the expenses of colonization, intending emigrants were induced to pay for the title of baronet. Knighthood, as a sign of personal worth, was never hereditary until the reign of James I. Some attempts were made, but the emigration was not carried out, though the traffic in titles continued. The country was settled by the French, retaken by the English, and the two nations possessed it in turns until it was finally given up to England by the peace of Utrecht. It was, however, not colonized by the English until 1749, when the fear of its being

regained by the French induced Parliament to make a grant of money for its colonization; and about four thousand emigrants, mostly disbanded troops, were settled there. They had land given to them, were promised many things requisite for its tillage, and also the necessaries of life for a year. The French Acadians were spoken of as French neutrals. They asked to to be allowed to take the oath of allegiance to England, with the proviso that they should not be compelled to serve against their countrymen. It is not certain if their request was granted. But in 1755 they were suddenly turned out of their homes, deprived of everything but their money and their household goods, and sent on board ship to be scattered among the other English colonies. It does not seem possible to justify this proceeding, but it must be remembered in palliation that at this time the French were gaining advantages over the English in North America; and there is no doubt that they endeavoured to obtain assistance from the Acadians, whether the latter listened to them or not. Many returned to their old home after the English dominion was thoroughly established. Nova Scotia was principally colonized from the Northern States, though immigrants came also from Scotland and Ireland.

New Brunswick, ceded to England in 1713.

New Brunswick was colonized by the French in 1672, and was ceded to England with Nova Scotia. Immigrants did not come to it until about fifty years later. They came mostly from Scotland, or from the neighbouring colonies. Their settlements were several times nearly destroyed by Indians. They were joined

during the War of Independence by American royalists, and in 1783 by disbanded English troops. The importance of New Brunswick consists in its fisheries. The old name for the northern coast of North America was "Baccalaos," from an Indian word, which means "cod."

Cape Breton Island, taken by the English in 1758.

This island was named by Breton sailors. It was not actually colonized by France until 1714, and then principally by fugitives from Newfoundland and Acadie. The town of Louisbourg was built and fortified, and from it privateers were sent out, which did much damage. It was taken by the New Englanders, but restored to France. After it was finally taken, in 1758, the fortifications were dismantled. The island was neglected until some American royalists settled there after the war. In 1800 an immigration was begun from the Highlands of Scotland. At the taking of Louisbourg, Captain Cook, of whom we shall hear later, was a petty officer on board one of the English ships.

Prince Edward's Island, becomes an English Colony in 1758.

With Cape Breton the neighbouring island of St. Jean came into possession of the English. It was granted in 1766 to such people, chiefly soldiers and sailors, as were thought to have claims on Government. So many applications were made that the grants were drawn for in a lottery. Most of those who were successful either sold or tried to sell their land, and in 1770 there were only a hundred and fifty families in the colony. In the beginning of this century there

was a large immigration of Highlanders. This colony is agricultural. It was named "Prince Edward's Island" in 1799, in honour of Edward Duke of Kent, father of Queen Victoria, who at that time commanded the English army in North America.

Canada, taken by the English in 1760.

In 1535 Jacques Cartier, of St. Malo, led an expedition to Newfoundland. He said that he thought that island must be the country which had been given to Cain. He went as far south as the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The following year he sailed up the St. Lawrence river with another expedition. He passed the spot which the Indians called Quebec, the site of the town of that name, and went as far as that of Montreal, which he himself named. Various unsuccessful attempts were made, but it was not until 1608 that a French colony was planted in Canada. It was still of small consequence when taken by the English in 1629, only to be restored in 1632. Jesuit missionaries and martyrs carried the French flag to the south-west, and thence came the claim of France to part of Maine and New York. The French also went by way of the lakes, traced the course of the Mississippi to the sea, and gave its name to Louisiana before the end of 1682. In 1689 fighting again began between the French and English. Both sides made use of Indian allies, and this gave their contests a very savage character.

The Peace of Ryswick in 1697 caused a pause in the war, but it was only concluded by the Peace of Utrecht, in 1713. The settlement then made was not satisfactory; the colonies given up were said to be yielded

according to their ancient boundaries. These boundaries had always been a subject of dispute, and whereas before this France wished to stretch them, her object now was to reduce them to the narrowest limits.

Fighting between French and English in the Ohio Valley, 1754.—In the middle of the 18th century there were no European settlements west of the Alleghanies; but the French claimed the ground watered by the affluents of the Mississippi, and built forts on it. Both France and England saw of what importance this territory was. If we look on the map at the thirteen original states, and imagine France possessing not only Canada to their north and Louisiana to their south, but a line of country to their west connecting these two settlements, it is easy to see how the development of the states would have been prevented, even had their position been maintained. It helps one to realize how marvellous the development has been, when we recollect that in little more than a hundred years from this time they had for boundary to the west, instead of the Alleghanies, the Pacific Ocean. Both French and English strove to obtain the co-operation of the Indians in the Ohio Valley. In 1754 the contest began between the French and the colonists, principally Virginians, a leader among whom was George Washington. The French were successful, and in the following year General Braddock was sent from England to prosecute the war. He treated with contempt the idea that Indians could be formidable to regular soldiers. Nevertheless he met with a disastrous defeat, to which they largely contributed, and was mortally wounded at Fort Duquesne, re-named Pittsburg when taken in 1758.

The Siege of Quebec, 1759.—In 1757 the English were driven from the Ohio by the Marquis de Montcalm, Governor of Canada, and the claim of France seemed established. Pitt said, "Every door is open to France;" but, determined to resist her great power, he decided to attempt the conquest of Canada. A fleet was sent there with troops in 1758. The American colonists assisted, and, after various reverses, drove the French in their turn from the Ohio Valley. Louisbourg, which commanded the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, was besieged and taken. General James Wolfe, one of the leaders of the expedition, distinguished himself by his bravery. It was too late in the year for further operations; but he, with others, was again sent out in 1759. The resources of Canada were sorely taxed; but the French Government "relied on the zeal" of Montcalm, and sent no more assistance. Wolfe sailed up the St. Lawrence, and encamped opposite Quebec, one of the strongest fortresses in the world. He waited six weeks in the hope that Montcalm would leave his position on the cliffs which border the river, and give him the chance of fighting a battle. At length he discovered a precipitous path leading up from the river, and determined by it to attempt a surprise. While going in a boat to make the arrangements, he repeated to those with him Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard," saying that he would rather have written that poem than take Quebec. The next day the path of glory led him to the grave. In the early morning of September 13th, 1759, the English army had reached the Heights of Abraham, above Quebec. To cover the town, Montcalm was forced to leave his position, and the battle began.

Both leaders were mortally wounded. Wolfe lived only long enough to hear that the French were utterly defeated. Montcalm lingered through the night. In the English camp the next day the parole was "Wolfe," the countersign "England;" and indeed this victory had set the seal to the possession of North America by the English race. Quebec capitulated in a few days. Montreal was taken in 1760; and the "Definitive Treaty" of 1763, which forbade France any military posts in the Carnatic, left to her of her North American possessions only Louisiana.

The fact that England was stronger at sea than France contributed largely to her success, but this was not the only reason of the French failure. France gave no liberties to her colonists; the chief desire of her officials sent out from home was to make money for themselves. Their misconduct had much to do with losing New France for her, although she had a great leader in Montcalm. He foresaw the fate of Canada, and foretold that it would join with the old American colonies in throwing off allegiance to England, when it would no longer profit them. Canada did not join the States in their revolution, but there is no doubt that their hands were greatly strengthened by their no longer having to fear French encroachment.

Progress of Canada.—Immigrants came to Canada from Great Britain and from the older colonies, and many Royalists came from the states after the declaration of independence. It was unsuccessfully attacked by New England in 1775. The French settlers, who were established in Lower Canada, were granted free exercise of their own religion and laws; and the customs of old France, the seigneurs and their rights, survived in

America after the white flag had been torn down in Europe. In 1791 a constitution was granted with an elective legislature, instead of one appointed by the Crown, as formerly. This liberality conduced to attach the colony more firmly to England. At the same time Upper Canada, which was entirely English, was separated from Lower Canada. At this period the latter province had more than 130,000 inhabitants, some being English; while Upper Canada had about 50,000. At the present day the population of British North America amounts to 4,000,000.

CHAPTER V.

WEST INDIES AND OTHER ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC, &c.

We must now say something of the West India Islands, to which allusion has occasionally been made, and some of which are amongst the oldest possessions of England out of Europe.

At the time of their discovery by Columbus the Great Antilles were inhabited by a kindly people, and most of the lesser islands by Caribs, who were cannibals. Both of these races are now extinct. England holds Jamaica, one of the Greater Antilles, and the Bahamas, which lie to their north. The rest of her possessions are in the Lesser Antilles, which are again divided into the Windward and Leeward Islands.

Barbados. 1605.

Barbados, the most easterly of the Windward Islands, was the first island claimed by the English. There is no mention of it before 1600. It is said to have been discovered about that time by the Portuguese, and to have been uninhabited. It got its name from "barbatos" (bearded), owing to the fibrous roots of trees with which it was clothed at the water's

edge. An English ship passing in 1605 planted a cross, with the inscription, "James, King of England and of this island." And a colony was sent out, under a patent from James I., in 1625, when thirty settlers founded James Town, which is now only a village. In the meantime the king had granted another patent to Lord Carlisle, and sixty-four people sent by him arrived in Carlisle Bay, to which they gave its name, in 1628. The two bodies of settlers fought, but the second, being reinforced, got the upper hand. Good laws were made, and real progress began. At first the colonists cultivated indigo, tobacco, and cotton; but in 1640 the sugar-cane was introduced from Brazil. They learnt the secret of its cultivation, which was not then known in any other English colony, and upon this they prospered. In 1650 the population amounted to 50,000, and the sugar trade, though requiring a large capital, made a profit of fifty per cent. Many Royalists came out during the Civil War, and Charles II. was proclaimed as soon as the execution of Charles I. was heard of. A fleet was sent from England in 1651 to bring the island to obedience, and a compromise was made, by which the authority of Parliament was acknowledged. Nevertheless the political sympathies of the settlers may have been the cause why the Act of Navigation was rigidly enforced upon Barbados. The trade carried on with the Dutch and Portuguese had to be given up, and only that with England pursued. Barbados contributed about 4,000 men to the expedition against St. Domingo and Jamaica in 1655. This is the only one of the West India Islands which has never belonged to any European power but England.

St. Christopher. 1623.

St. Christopher, usually called St. Kitts, is said to have been so named by Columbus on account of its shape. The island-mountain, having a smaller mountain on its shoulders, as it were, reminded him of the figure of the giant saint bearing the child Christ. The native name was Liamuiga, the "fertile isle." It seems to have been the first actually colonized by the English, as a party of fourteen arrived in 1623. Some French also made an independent settlement in the same year. They were at first friendly with the natives, and eventually victorious over them. The English leader went home, was knighted by Charles I., and brought out four hundred colonists. More French also came. In 1629 the Spaniards made a descent upon the island, carried off the greater part of the English colonists to work in the mines, and drove away the rest, who however returned, and were joined by others; but after this the French and English fought almost continually, each colony in turn expelling the other, until the Peace of Utrecht, 1713, when the island was ceded to England. The few French who remained and retained their estates were naturalized as British subjects. Once more the French obtained possession, but it was restored to England in 1783.

Nevis. 1628. Montserrat. 1632.

Nevis, which consists of a single mountain, is said to have been named by Columbus on account of its resemblance to a mountain in Spain called "Nieves," "snows." It is also conjectured that, as it is an extinct volcano, there might still at that time have been over the peak a cloud of smoke, which looked like snow.

It was colonized from St. Kitts in 1628, and soon became of importance. This was, however, checked by a great pestilence, probably yellow fever. Then it was devastated, first by the French, and afterwards by a hurricane. It eventually revived, and only sugar was grown, instead of tobacco and ginger, as before. Montserrat, colonized by both English and French in 1632, prospered and became an English possession.

Jamaica. 1655.

Spain viewed with great jealousy any interference in a part of the world which she considered her own property, even where she had made no settlements. When a treaty of peace was being made in 1630, and the subjects of the Inquisition and the West Indies were brought forward, the Spanish ambassador said, that "to ask a liberty from the Inquisition, and free sailing in the West Indies, was to ask his master's two eyes," and would not give way on any point concerning them. The Spaniards ill-treated the members of any other nation who fell into their power in the West Indies, and it was this which induced Cromwell to send a squadron to attack St. Domingo. It was reinforced, not only from Barbados, but from St. Kitts and Nevis, which shows how these islands must have flourished. Repulsed at St. Domingo, the squadron took Jamaica, which had been discovered by Columbus, and colonized by Spaniards. Its native name, Xaymaca, means a country of springs. Some of the conquerors, both English and West Indian, settled in the island. Free settlers came from England, and others, who were considered ill-disposed at home, were sent out by force. Scotch and Irish prisoners of war were

sold there as slaves. This was also the case in the American colonies. The slavery was of a limited kind; many of those sold became planters themselves when they had served their time. The Spaniards had cultivated cacao in the island, but the Barbadian immigrants introduced sugar, which soon became the principal crop. When Jamaica was taken by the English many of the negroes escaped to the hills in the interior, where they were joined at different times by others. They succeeded in repelling attacks made upon them, and were often a source of trouble. These Maroons, as they were called, existed in several of the West India islands. "Maroon" is said to be derived from a word meaning "hog-hunter;" by others, from one meaning "monkey," on account of their life in the woods.

After the Restoration many of the Parliamentary party emigrated to Jamaica. The Spaniards attempted to retake the island, and Morgan, the buccaneer, was employed against them. He was actually knighted by Charles II., and was Lieut.-Governor of Jamaica for a short period. Jamaica increased in population and wealth, but the character given to its inhabitants is very bad. Port Royal, the capital, was swallowed up by the sea during an earthquake in 1692, and a pestilence followed, which caused the death of many of the inhabitants.

The Buccaneers.—It is not possible to speak of the West Indies in old days without naming the "buccaneers." They were so called from "boucanes," the name according to some of the wood-fires over which they smoked their food; according to others of the wooden gridirons, which they used in cooking it. Their other name of filibusters, or freebooters, was derived

from "vlieoboten," flying boats, the Dutch name of their ships. There were thousands of them, and they were literally pirates and smugglers. Sometimes they became so merely from choice, sometimes they were driven to revenge by Spanish cruelty and oppression. They were Dutch, French, and English, but had one bond of union, that they all hated the Spaniards. This hatred covered many of their sins in the eyes of the planters. They were encouraged for a time, but they would not settle down quietly when Spain gave up her claim of undivided right to the West Indies, and it was found necessary to suppress them. This was a work of great difficulty. The 17th century was the time of their power, but there were still some of them left in the end of the 18th.

Antigua. 1632.

Antigua was colonized from Barbados in the middle of the 17th century. The French occupied it for a time, but it was ceded to England by the Peace of Breda in 1667. It is almost without springs, and suffers often from droughts.

Anguilla. 1650.

Anguilla, or Snake Island, is said to have been so called from its shape, or because of the snakes found there. The former seems the more likely reason, as there are plenty of snakes in the other islands. It was colonized by English in 1650. There were numerous French incursions, which ended in 1796. In appearance it is unlike the other islands, as it has no mountains. There is a large salt lake from which salt is exported.

The Virgin Islands. 1680.

The Virgin Islands were so named by Columbus from the 11,000 virgins. They really number about forty, clustered together. Tortola, one of them, had first a settlement of Dutch buccaneers, and then of English. In 1680 English planters went from Anguilla, and raised the usual products—sugar, cotton, indigo, and ginger. Tortola gained an unenviable notoriety through a planter named Arthur Hodge, who treated his slaves most cruelly, and killed a number of them by poison, in order to see how he could cause them most suffering. This was in 1811, and the state of public opinion there at the time was such that, though when he was brought to trial the jury could not but find him guilty, the Governor dared not enforce the sentence of death without proclaiming martial law. The facts were not denied, but his advocate defended him on the ground that, his slave being his property, it was no greater offence to kill him than to kill a dog. The Virgin Islands do not all belong to England.

The Slave Trade.—The West Indies have been compared to gardens, in which men raise the products of many parts of the world. Their natural beauty and fertility are great, despite the devastating action of earthquake and hurricane. But the hand of man has wrought more terrible things there than any other agency. It is not only that in the end of the last century the possession of island after island was most fiercely contested between the French and English by land and sea, but it was in the West Indies that slavery, as far as the English are concerned, showed itself in the most revolting form. The cruelties that were practised are too horrible to be spoken of. They afford another

proof, if one were wanting, of how dangerous and demoralizing despotic power is to ordinary human beings. The blood of the poor Indians crying from the ground against the Spaniards induced the merciful Bishop Las Casas to propose the introduction of negro slaves into America as stronger and more able to work in the mines. He little thought what evil he was doing. The slave trade had existed for ages, but this fresh call for labour gave it a new impulse. Sir John Hawkins was the first Englishman who engaged successfully in the traffic. Queen Elizabeth shared in his profits, and gave him a "demi-moor bound" for his arms. He says of one of his expeditions, "If all the miseries and troublesome affairs of this sorrowful voyage should be perfectly and thoroughly written, there should need a painful man with his pen, and as great a time as he had that wrote the lives and deaths of the martyrs." Surely the negroes might say, Amen. By the Treaty of Utrecht the monopoly of the slave trade to America was secured to England, and the supply did not fail. This curse was on the West India Islands, and whatever their material prosperity might be, they were demoralized by it.

Dominica. 1783.

Dominica was so called because discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. It is said that he crushed up a sheet of paper in his hand to give Queen Isabella an idea of its appearance, all covered by hills. The French were the first actual settlers. It was taken and retaken several times. By the Peace of Versailles, in 1783, it was confirmed to the English, who were then in possession. The French again invaded it, but without success.

St. Vincent. 1783.

St. Vincent was in like manner alternately taken by the English and French, and ceded to England in 1783. Later on the French incited the natives to an insurrection, which caused some trouble. They were called "Black Caribs," and were probably descendants of shipwrecked negroes, who had intermarried with the Indians. They were eventually deported to British Honduras.

Grenada. 1783.

This island, considered the most beautiful of the West Indies, was also the scene of fighting between French and English; it was confirmed to the English in 1783.

St. Lucia. 1803.

The contest went on still longer in St. Lucia. It was several times seized by the English and restored again to the French, who were the earliest settlers. But in 1803 it was finally taken by the English.

Tobago. 1803.

This island was called Assumption by Columbus. It is said to derive its present name from tobacco, which the first settlers found the natives using. After many changes of owners, the English took it from the French in 1803.

Trinidad. 1797.

Trinidad, the largest of the English West India Islands, except Jamaica, was so named by Columbus because of its three mountain peaks. It was Spanish until taken by the English in 1797. It has more soil fit for cultivation than any of the other English West

Indian Islands, except Barbados. In the centre of the island is a remarkable lake of pitch.

There are several smaller islands, one of which, *Barbuda*, has belonged to the Codrington family since 1680. The French, Dutch, and Danish islands have all been, at least at one period, in the possession of England.

Bahamas. 1629-1718.

The *Bahamas* have not much connection with the other islands. They are flat and low, situated on two banks of coral and sand. The natives called them "Lucayos," whence is most likely derived the name "cay," given in this part of the world to small sandy islands. San Salvador, at one time called Cat Island, is said to be the spot where Columbus first landed; but Watling Island also claims the honour. The English settled in New Providence in 1629; but were driven away more than once by the Spaniards. It is said that when a newly-appointed governor arrived, in 1703, he found no one left. The islands became haunts of pirates until another English colony went out, in 1718. It was recruited by Royalists from America during the War of Independence. The Bahamas have excellent pasturage, good timber on the larger islands, and abundance of fruit. At one time much money was made there by wrecking; but the building of several lighthouses brought these ill-gotten gains to an end.

British Honduras. 1786.

British Honduras is on the coast of Central America. It was discovered by Columbus, and occupied by Spaniards until its mines were exhausted, when it

became a resort for pirates. Willis, a buccaneer, made a settlement there, in 1638, on the banks of the river which is called Belize, a corruption of his name. More English came, whom the Indians assisted against the hated Spaniards. After changes of fortune, it became finally English in 1786. Its most valuable exports are mahogany and logwood.

British Guiana. 1803.

British Guiana, on the coast of South America, consists of the three settlements of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, named from their rivers. It was taken by the English from the Dutch, restored, and finally taken by England in 1803. It produces a great deal of sugar.

The Bermudas. 1611.

In mid-Atlantic Ocean are the *Bermudas*, a group of coral islands, so named from Bermudez, a Spaniard, who discovered them by being shipwrecked there in 1522. Sir George Summers suffered the same fate in 1609. This fact is supposed to have inspired *The Tempest*, and in that play Shakespeare alludes to the "still vex'd Bermoothes." Summers returned thither from Virginia, and died in 1611. In the same year his brother brought out a colony of sixty people, who had a representative government almost from the first. During the Civil Wars many Puritans went there, of whom Andrew Marvell wrote his "Song of the Emigrants in Bermuda." Under the Commonwealth, Royalists emigrated to Bermuda, and Edmund Waller is said to have been of the number. This is, however, denied; but he laid the scene of a poem there.

Bermuda was to be once more associated with a poet, as Moore held an appointment there for a time. In the War of Independence Washington proposed taking the islands, to make of them "a nest of hornets to annoy the British trade." But they were fortified by England, and made a naval station, to which prizes were taken. The Bermuda cedar, which is a species of juniper, and oleanders, grow profusely. The arrowroot produced there is much better than the West Indian. One reason for this is said to be that the means of adulteration are not so easily found.

CHAPTER VI.

THE OLD AMERICAN COLONIES UP TO THE TIME OF INDEPENDENCE, 1688–1782.

Growth of the North American Colonies.—The later history of the American colonies is one of rapid growth, and, on the whole, of prosperity, though interrupted occasionally by Indian wars. There was little community of ideas or interests among the States. They had been founded in different ways, and their physical features also affected their development. In the north Puritanism held sway, and sometimes led to bitter intolerance and cruel persecutions. This was the case at Salem in the terrible year of 1692. Twenty people, who insisted on their innocence, were put to death for witchcraft. Fifty-five saved their lives by a confession of guilt. After this, reason seemed to return to the authorities, and the accused, with whom the prisons were crowded, were all acquitted. The evidence against them was the same as that which had condemned the unfortunate sufferers—the testimony of excited children, who, it must be hoped, were rather hysterical than malicious. In the north the nature of the climate and life did not call for any large number of negro slaves. In the south, on the contrary, they were very numerous, and in many parts did the whole of the manual and field

labour. The planters, who lived in rough plenty and hospitality, looked down upon the New Englanders as plodding and strait-laced. The latter, in their turn, condemned the Southerners for what they thought indifference to the more serious concerns of life.

Relation between England and the Colonies.—The relation of England to her colonies was in no way accurately defined. They had been planted under royal grants, and it was assumed by some that the royal power over them was unlimited. The colonists defended themselves against this in all cases by maintaining their rights as Englishmen, and sometimes by their charters. The form of government was now similar for them all—a governor appointed from England, and a council sometimes also thus appointed, and sometimes chosen by the body of representatives elected by the colony. This body voted the governor's salary, and, to keep a check on him, would only vote it yearly. In fact, he often had but little power, the more so as direct orders from home were held by the colonial assemblies as not concerning themselves, but only the executive.

In England the idea still was, that colonies existed for the benefit of the nation from which they had sprung; that the colonists might be considered as cultivators of its outlying territory, and that all their trade should be carried on for its benefit. This was the principle of the Navigation Act, and although it was evaded in many ways by the colonists, the right of England to impose it was not denied.

In 1696 a board was created to administer colonial affairs. Part of its duties was to enquire into the means of making the colonies "more useful and beneficial to

England;" into the manufactures to be encouraged, and the manufactures from which they should be diverted as "prejudicial to England." A few years later, in order to protect the English woollen manufacture, at that time most important, wool and woollen goods were not allowed to be sent from one colony to another. Rice, which by 1704 had become a considerable export, was then enumerated. It was allowed in 1730 to be sent to ports south of Cape Finisterre. The reason for this restriction was, that the southern countries of Europe were not manufacturing ones, and therefore the return cargoes sent would not affect England. In 1714, when George I. came to the throne, the white population of the colonies (still only twelve) was 375,750, against 200,000 in 1688. There were besides nearly 59,000 negroes. For a time they were little interfered with; so that it was said by some that, unless restrained more, they would liberate themselves entirely. They seem to have had no such idea. They had as yet no common bond to unite them.

Want of Union amongst the Colonies.—Benjamin Franklin, the printer's boy who raised himself to be a philosopher and a statesman, seems to have been the first to suggest a union between the different States, though with no thought of breaking the tie to England. A paper, supposed to be written by him, appeals to the union of the six Indian nations, and asks why English colonies, "to whom it is more necessary, and must be more advantageous," cannot form the like. When commissioners from several of the States met in 1754 he produced a plan for a confederacy, but all were more inclined to regard particular than general interests; neither did it find favour in England. It

must be remembered though that the New England colonies had early formed a confederation among themselves. William Penn had also wished for a yearly congress to treat of the common affairs of all. But as late as 1760 Franklin speaks of their inability to act in union against French and Indians, and thence deduces the impossibility of their "uniting against their own nation, which they all love much more than they love one another, without the most grievous tyranny and oppression." And when the independence of America was spoken of as likely to take place, one well qualified to judge replied, "Not for centuries."

In this very year, 1760, George .III. ascended the throne, and to him more than anyone else is to be ascribed the violent rending asunder of the bond between England and the colonies. Public opinion has changed so much, that it is difficult for us to realize how such arbitrary proceedings could have been thought right. It seems as if in the idea that as children the colonies were bound to obey their parent state, the fact was lost sight of that children come to man's estate in time. And these, who had been allowed in most things to grow up as they pleased, were not likely to submit when suddenly called upon to obey orders which they thought unjust and tyrannical.

The Stamp Act and its Consequences. 1765-1775.

The tendency of the Board of Trade and of Parliament had been for some time towards checking the liberty of the colonies. Stamp Acts and other measures of the kind had been proposed, but never carried out. In the first year of his reign George III. appointed a

chief justice of New York "at his pleasure" instead of "during good behaviour" as formerly. This was approved by the Board of Trade on the ground that the other tenure made the colonies too independent, although it had been thought necessary for the liberties of Englishmen.

The burden of debt left on England by the Seven Years' War was immense, and as the war had been in part undertaken for the benefit of the colonies it was proposed to make America pay a share. The import duties were raised, and the Navigation Act was strictly enforced. This, though it caused dissatisfaction, was not considered illegal; but the proposal of internal taxation was at once resisted. The colonists held that the rights of the colonial assemblies were the same as those of the House of Commons, and that therefore they alone had power to raise money.

However, in 1764 George Grenville announced that the next year he would bring in a bill to make America pay stamp duties. He was willing to change this for any measure preferred by the Americans which would produce a like amount; but at the same time he was resolved to tax them by means of Parliament, which he said was the common council of the whole empire, and had authority over it all. The colonies protested against this, but declared their willingness to tax themselves to an even greater extent. In 1765 the Stamp Act was passed. The colonies declared that they would not use the stamps, and in the autumn delegates from most of the States met at New York, and agreed upon an address to be sent to England. This was one of their first united efforts. They affirmed the principle of no taxation without representation; they

said that, owing to distance and other reasons, it was impossible for them to be represented in the English House of Commons, and that therefore they must be taxed where they could be represented. The argument brought against this in England was, that many large towns there returned no members. This argument had an effect which was not intended, and one of the later results of American resistance to taxation was the English Reform Bill. The different States had for some time had agents in England, who watched such affairs as concerned them, and sent them information; but these had no power or authority other than what the States which sent them could give. Franklin represented Pennsylvania at one period, and afterwards Massachusetts.

Officers were sent out to administer the Stamp Act; but on seeing the attitude of the colonies they resigned. A shipload of stamps came to Boston, and was seized by the magistrates. Riots took place, and some of the stamps were burned. Grenville was out of office when this news reached England. The ministry were alarmed at the spirit which had been aroused, while Pitt expressed his joy at resistance to a measure which he considered unlawful. Much against the King's will the Stamp Act was repealed early in 1766, although while so doing Parliament affirmed its right to tax the colonies. The stamps were returned to London, where they still exist. The way in which the colonists resisted the imposition of new duties was by refusing to buy any of the dutiable articles; thus instead of the revenue being increased English trade was damaged. Troops were sent out; but there were no riots to be subdued, and it was not possible to force people to

import goods. In 1769 the duties were all abandone
except that on tea, which was vigorously resisted b
the colonists, because it was maintained as a proof tha
Parliament had the right of taxation. The feeling ha
by this time become so bitter that in 1770 Lord Nort
characterized the contest as trivial at first, but "no
for no less than sovereignty on one side and ind
pendence on the other."

During all this time colonies were being planted t
the westward, but were not yet sufficiently establishe
to have any political importance. Among the ol
colonies there was constant communication about th
policy to be adopted in common.

The Boston Tea-party. 1773.—In 1773 the Ea
India Company sent out a cargo of tea, which th
governor tried to force upon Boston. On the 16th
December a party of men, disguised as Indians, thre
it all overboard; this is what is called the Bosto
tea-party. At other places the tea was burned; ever
where it was refused. Many in America were read
to support a claim for compensation; but the Kin
would hear of no conciliation. It was declared th
rebellion existed, the port of Boston was closed, an
the charter of Massachusetts taken away. All th
colonies adopted her cause, and appointed a gener
congress. Thence they sent a petition to the King, i
which they insisted on the right of taxing themselve
At the same time, however, they made ready f
armed resistance.

War between England and her Colonies. 1755.

Notwithstanding the efforts of Chatham, Parliame
supported the King in his design of reducing Americ

and troops were sent out for the purpose. The King expected that the colonists would be terrified into submission; while many in America thought that a show of resistance on their part would be enough to avert the struggle. Independence was not yet their object, only the maintenance of what they considered their rights as Englishmen. The first actual collision occurred at Lexington, a village eleven miles from Boston, April 19th, 1775, between a body of English troops and some local militia.

Men came in from all parts of Massachusetts, and the next day the English were besieged in Boston. Reinforcements soon reached them, and in June the Americans were driven from Bunker's Hill, which commanded the town. Yet their obstinate resistance showed the English troops what stuff there was in these raw levies. A few days later George Washington, who had been appointed general, took the command. Few men have gained so great and well-deserved a reputation. With equal fortitude in prosperity and adversity, he won the freedom of his country, and asked no other reward. Even after these events Congress continued to think that a pacification might be effected, and did not take steps to provide the army with necessaries. Still, all through the bitter winter the siege was kept up, and in the spring of 1776 the British troops withdrew by sea, and joined General Howe at New York, where a number of German mercenaries had arrived. In 1775 an American army had marched into Canada, which had refused to join the colonies. It was at first successful; but in the next year was forced to retreat. The English army had been recruited in America, principally from

among recent colonists. In the same year the kings of France and Spain sent money secretly to help the Americans; the motive of both was hatred to England, and not any desire to see colonies become independent of their Home Government.

Declaration of Independence. 1776. Peace. 1782.

There was no longer any thought in America of reconciliation with England on the old footing. On July 4th, 1776, at Philadelphia, Congress agreed to the celebrated Declaration of Independence. It was written by Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, and cites the tyrannical deeds of King George III. as being the reason for the separate existence of the United States of America. The exultation over this act died away when in August Howe gained a victory at Brooklyn, and Washington was obliged to retreat upon the Delaware. The outlook was very gloomy; but successes at Trenton and Princetown drove Howe back upon New York. Franklin went to France in the end of the year, and got more money and stores, in spite of the protests of England.

On January 1st, 1776, the American flag, with thirteen stripes, was chosen; in the corner were the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew. In June, 1777, these were replaced by thirteen stars. The number of these has varied, as a new star is added for every fresh state taken into the Union. The thirteen stripes still recall the number of the original States.

In 1777 General Burgoyne marched from Canada with Indian auxiliaries, to join Howe in cutting off New England; but his army was surrounded at Saratoga, and he was obliged to surrender. Howe had been more successful. He defeated Washington at the

Brandywine, and took Philadelphia, then considered the capital of the States. All through the winter Washington held his camp at Valley Forge, some twenty miles off. Patriotism and attachment to their leader nerved his troops to endurance, though they were in want of the commonest necessaries of life. In the beginning of 1778 a treaty of alliance was concluded between France and the United States. England accepted this as a declaration of war by France. Shortly afterwards Parliament agreed to relinquish the right of taxation; but it was too late. America would not accept dependence on any terms. George III. still clung to the hope that want of money would force the States to submit. In 1779 and 1780 Lord Cornwallis gained great advantages in the Southern States, which, being most recently settled, contained the most Royalists. But in 1781 he was besieged in York Town, a village between the York and James rivers, by Washington from the land and the French fleet from the sea, and was forced, by want of provisions, to surrender. This was the end. Parliament, weary of the war, insisted upon peace, and before the end of the next year it was signed and sealed.

England had been conquered by the love of liberty which her sons inherited from her. From henceforth her ideas as to the relations with her colonies gradually changed. Now she has truly taken her place as a mother of nations; she no longer looks upon her colonies as intended to toil for her profit, but in their growth and well-being she finds the reward of her early fostering care.

CHAPTER VII.

INDIA FROM 1761.

THERE were frequent quarrels between the East India Company and its officials in India. Instructions sent were necessarily often out of date long before they arrived; and also the Company, while deprecating any ill-usage of the natives, was always pressing for money. It claimed benevolent intentions for its own part, and laid all evils to the charge of its administrators.

Disturbances in India. 1761.—Hostilities broke out between the English and Mir Cassim, the Subahdar or Nawab of Bengal, who was eventually defeated and took refuge with the Nawab of Oudh. The latter, though he had made himself quite independent of the Emperor, still kept the title of "Nawab-Vizir." The result to him of interference on Mir Cassim's behalf was that he lost his own dominions at the battle of Buxar, in 1764. They were restored, on his payment of a large sum of money, by Clive, who returned to India the following year as Lord Clive of Plassy. The Nizam of the Deccan made a plundering expedition into the Carnatic, but a treaty was concluded by which he gave up the northern Circars to the English. They were to pay him a yearly rent, from which was de-

ducted the cost of a subsidiary force to be furnished him when he had need of it. The English now held the whole sea coast from Madras to Bengal, except the province of Cuttack, which was taken in the second Mahratta war. Shah Alam granted them the administration of finance in Bengal, Behar, and Orissa; the "diwani" as it was called. The collection they left in the hands of the natives for a few years, and then found it advisable to undertake that also. They preferred appointing a nawab who was entirely under their authority to ruling in their own name. Clive, in spite of much opposition from those concerned, made regulations to prevent government officials from engaging in trade, and also reduced military allowances. He finally left India in 1767.

Parliament interferes in Indian affairs.—In 1773 it was ordered by Parliament that the ministry should have power to interfere in Indian affairs; and also that there should in future be a Governor-General, to rule over all the presidencies, whose appointment must be approved by the Crown.

Warren Hastings.—Warren Hastings, the Governor of Bengal, was the first Governor-General, and remained in office from 1774 to 1785, longer than any of his successors have done. He greatly improved the internal organization of the English dominions, but he did many unrighteous acts in order to obtain money. He sold the services of the Company's soldiers to help the Nawab-Vizir in a barbarous war against the Rohillas, and helped him in his cruel extortions. The Raja of Benares did not give him as much money as he wanted, and so Hastings annexed his territory, and placed a puppet raja on the throne. Other charges,

too, were brought against him on his return to England, and though he was found "not guilty" after a trial which dragged on for eight years before the House of Lords, the verdict of posterity has not been so favourable. Still, in difficult and troublous times he not only maintained but increased the British empire in India. His end was a great one, but he did not hesitate to reach it by crooked paths.

War with the Mahrattas. 1775.—During his administration there were two great wars. One was with the Mahrattas. These were an old Hindu people, who had fallen under the power of the conquering Mahometans. They rose to eminence in the middle of the seventeenth century, being led by Sivaji, a man of low origin. At first merely robber bands, by degrees they made kingdoms for themselves in different parts of India, and, in spite of their own quarrels, acted together to a great extent against others. The chief state was Poona, in the Western Ghats, which had for some time been ruled by the "Peshwa," a sort of *maire-du-palais* to the still existing raja, Sivaji's representative. There were besides, the Gaikwar of Baroda, the Raja of Nagpore, Sindhia of Gwalior, and Holkar of Indore. "Gaikwar" means "herdsman," and is supposed to mark the origin of the first of the line. Sindhia and Holkar, originally proper names, became the titles of the heads of their respective houses. The Bombay Government was alarmed by French intrigues at Poona, and endeavoured to place a rival claimant on the throne. A war resulted, which went on from 1775 to 1782, when things were left pretty much as they had been before. The English desired peace on account of the beginning of the first Mysore war.

The First Mysore War. 1780–1784.—Hyder Ali, a soldier of fortune, who for many years had led a mere pleasure-seeking life, some say until he was forty-seven, made himself master of the kingdom of Mysore. He had been offended by the English refusing to help him against the Mahrattas, after having made a defensive alliance with him; and when, in 1778, they took the French settlement of Pondicherry, and threatened that of Mahé, in his territories, he came down with his brave army into the Carnatic, and was everywhere victorious, until Madras itself was in imminent danger. He was the more formidable in that he had many French officers and some French troops under him. Sir Eyre Coote was sent from Bengal, and gained the important victory of Porto Novo; but still the contest went on. Hyder died in 1782. The French were withdrawn at the peace of 1783, after which peace was made with Hyder's son Tippoo, and the conquests on both sides were restored.

Second Mysore War. 1790.—Tippoo attacked an ally of the English, and war broke out again. The Nizam and the Mahratta princes were now against him. The Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, commanded the English and their allies, and Tippoo made peace when besieged in his capital, Seringapatam, in 1792. He was obliged to give up half of his territories to the allies, and to pay a large sum of money.

Third Mysore War. 1799.—Lord Mornington arrived as Governor-General in 1798, and heard that Tippoo had been asking the governor of the Isle of France (now Mauritius) for help against the English. Lord Mornington first addressed himself to the Nizam, and induced him to send away his French troops by pro-

mising him more English ones. The Nizam also agreed not to employ foreigners, or hold intercourse with foreign states without the knowledge of the English, a proviso which has been introduced into all subsequent agreements with native princes. Tippoo could not be induced to make any such promise, and the third and last Mysore war took place. The English took Seringapatam in 1799, when Lord Mornington's brother, Colonel Arthur Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington), was present, and Tippoo was killed. In recognition of his services Lord Mornington was made Marquis Wellesley. Mysore was divided between the allies, a part being reserved for the child-representative of the old Hindu Rajas, who was in a condition of abject poverty. He did not grow up to be a wise ruler, and disturbances in Mysore obliged the English to undertake the administration. The Raja submitted peaceably, and his adopted son was recognized by the authorities. He received a thoroughly good education, and the government was given up to him in 1881.

Extension of the British Dominion.—In the beginning of the nineteenth century Surat, Tanjore, and the Carnatic were annexed—the last on account of the Nawab having plotted with Tippoo. The Nawab-Vizir also gave Rohilkhand, and a tract between the Ganges and the Jumna, as payment for arrears of subsidy for the troops allowed him, and admitted a British Resident at his court.

For many years Baroda had been distracted by quarrels among the reigning family. The Gaikwar, who succeeded in 1800, was almost idiotic. English troops were sent to defend him, and he was made

independent of the Peshwa. An English Resident was appointed in 1817. In 1874 the then Gaikwar was found guilty of attempting to poison the Resident, and was deposed, another member of the family being appointed in his stead.

Second Mahratta War. 1803.—Lord Wellesley tried in vain to make a treaty with the Mahratta princes, similar to that made with the Nizam. But in 1802 the Peshwa was attacked by Holkar, and fled to British protection, where he bound himself by the treaty of Bassein. Sindhia rejected a like proposal, and indignant at the Peshwa's defection, leagued himself with the Raja of Nagpore and Holkar, and the second Mahratta war began, 1803. Lord Lake was successful in the north, and took Agra and Delhi, which had been for some time in Sindhia's possession. In Delhi was Shah Alam, who had been nominally restored to his dominions by the Mahrattas, but was virtually their prisoner: his eyes had been put out by a chief who got possession of Delhi during Sindhia's absence. The blind old man remained a pensioner of the English until his death in 1806, at the age of 83. In the south Sir A. Wellesley won Assaye and other battles, and before the year was at an end peace was made. Sindhia gave up all territory north of the Jumna. The Raja of Nagpore gave Orissa to the English, and Berar to the Nizam. It had always been acknowledged as his property by the Mahrattas; but they had taken more than half the tribute. Berar was temporarily ceded to the English by the Nizam in 1853 as payment for arrears of subsidy. Holkar had not come to the help of his confederates; but now fighting began with him, in the course of which Delhi was most

gallantly defended by a small force. Holkar maintained his position, and Sindhia was urged by his chief minister, his wife's father, to join him. The East India Company had become alarmed by this continual war, and sent out Lord Cornwallis again with instructions to bring it to a close. He arrived very ill in 1805, and died in a few months, but the arrangements he had made were carried out. Holkar agreed not to employ Europeans without leave from the English, and all the territory that had been taken from him was restored. Sindhia also received back part of his, and peace was made. Holkar's conduct was very extraordinary for some time; he became quite insane in 1808, and died in 1811.

In 1814 the East India Company's charter was renewed; but its monopoly of trade with India was taken away, though that with China was still left to it. At the next renewal in 1833 the Company was not allowed to trade at all; and in 1858 its power came to an end, and the Government of India was transferred to the Crown.

Lord Moira. 1814–1823.—Lord Moira as Governor-General had to fight against new foes. He was made Marquis of Hastings for his successes over the Gurkhas, the inhabitants of Nepal. They made raids upon their neighbours, and when they began to molest British subjects Lord Moira attacked them. The campaign began in 1814 with reverses; the Gurkhas charged fiercely from their precipitous hills, and drove back the Sepoys. The next year the hill-forts were taken, but the Gurkhas would not accept the English terms of peace until they were driven farther back the following year. They gave up that part of their country where

are the healthy hill-stations of Naini Tal, Simla, and Massuri, and have ever since maintained friendly relations with England.

Central India.—At this time Central India seemed in a state of chaos. There were armies in all directions which professed to serve different princes, but really plundered on their own account. Chief among these were the Pindaris, bands of irregular horse. They seem to have originally been troops employed in the Deccan. Then they served the Mahratta princes, and were given grants of land by Sindhia and Holkar, on condition of unpaid service in war. This did not prevent their fighting against these princes when occasion offered. In 1817 a large English army advanced upon them from different quarters. The Peshwa promised assistance against the Pindaris, but all the time was leaguing himself with the other Mahratta chiefs to help them.

Third Mahratta War. 1817.—The English Resident at Poona discovered what was going on, and joined the troops whom he had sent to Kirkee, a short distance off. Immediately the Peshwa's soldiers plundered and burnt the Residency, and the next day came to attack Kirkee, but were met and repulsed by the English, the Peshwa fled, and Poona was occupied at once. Sindhia had been engaged in plots, but was cut off from intercourse with his allies, and signed a treaty, which bound him to help the English against the Pindaris. The Raja of Nagpore had also attacked the English Resident at his Court, but a few British soldiers and some Sepoys resisted successfully against terrible odds. Other troops joined them, and those of the Raja were entirely defeated. Holkar was a boy at this period, and his

territory had for some time been a scene of confusion: a victory was won over his troops in 1818. In the same year the Pindaris were hotly pursued and overcome. One of their leaders gave himself up, and had land allotted to him in Bengal, where he lived peaceably under surveillance. Another poisoned himself. A third, whilst fleeing through a jungle, was killed by a tiger. Most of their followers lost their lives in battle, or at the hands of the natives, or else perished of want. Some continued to be a source of disturbance, though never numerous enough to be of importance. Another battle was fought with the Peshwa's troops, after which his deposition was declared, and Satara, where the Raja, Sivaji's descendant, lived, was occupied. A small part of the territory which the Peshwa had governed in his name was given to him under British protection. Meanwhile the Peshwa and the Raja of Nagpore endeavoured to coalesce, but were prevented. The Raja was taken prisoner, but escaped, and eventually took refuge with the Raja of Jodhpore, who undertook to keep him safely. The Peshwa gave himself up, and was sent to live at Bithur, near Cawnpore, on an annual allowance. His adopted son was the too-well-known Nana Sahib. The remainder of his territory, and a great part of Nagpore, were taken under direct British administration, as were Holkar's scattered possessions. The remainder of Nagpore was given to a child-heir under British supervision. It was annexed in 1853 on failure of male heirs, as Satara had been in 1848. Some exchanges of possessions were made with Sindhia; the territories of the Nizam and the Gaikwar were increased, and the states of Rajputana came under British protection.

The three presidencies had been separated by the Mahratta country; this division was now at an end, and the British Government was supreme over the native states in this part of India. Indeed, if the foundation of empire may be dated from the battle of Plassy, its establishment coincides with the downfall of the Mahrattas. The gain was not, however, on one side only; for the natives were delivered from the extortion and oppression that had been practised both by Mahrattas and Pindaris.

The War with Burma.—War with Burma began in 1824, the Burmese having constantly encroached on English territory, and treated remonstrance with contempt. The English army suffered much from sickness, the country being very swampy and unhealthy. In the spring of 1826 peace was made, the Burmese claim to Assam was given up, Arakan and Tenasserim were ceded, and an indemnity was paid, though very tardily. A treaty had been nearly concluded twice before, but the Burmese failed to perform their part. There was a second Burmese war in 1852, occasioned by the ill-treatment of British subjects at Rangoon. The king would enter into no negotiations, and Pegu, part of his territory, was annexed. Under British rule the number of inhabitants, Burmese as well as others, of Rangoon, has increased enormously.

Bhurtpore, in Central India, was taken by Lord Combermere in 1827. The thick mud walls, on which shot had little effect, were undermined, and it was stormed. This made a great impression upon the natives; for as Lord Lake had made an unsuccessful attempt on it in 1805, they had believed it to be the bound of English conquest.

Lord William Bentick, Governor-General. 1828–1835.—Lord William Bentinck's name is associated with reform in administration and a desire to benefit the governed, and not merely to exalt the governing nation. Suttee, the custom that a widow should be burned alive on her husband's funeral-pile, had existed for long, and the English had taken no steps to prevent it. In spite of great opposition, Lord William Bentinck ordered its abolition, and declared all who abetted it guilty of culpable homicide. Some resistance was made, but not nearly as much as had been expected, and there were but few cases afterwards. In 1817 there are known to have been seven hundred in Bengal alone. Lord William Bentinck also took vigorous measures to put down Thuggism. The Thugs were bands of robbers, who trained up their children to follow in their footsteps. They considered themselves instruments of destiny, and carried out the worship of the cruel goddess Kali. They strangled their victims, and as they took care always to outnumber these, it was difficult to find evidence against them. However, between 1826 and 1835 nearly 2,000 were arrested. Informers were encouraged, and the association gradually ceased to exist.

The cruelties and plottings of the Raja of Coorg necessitated war in 1834. He was defeated after a stubborn resistance, and allowed to go to Benares to live. Coorg was taken under British rule by the wish of the great majority of the people.

Relations with Afghanistan.—Of old French influence had been dreaded in India, now that of Russia began to be the bugbear. In order to make a barrier against Russian advances in Central Asia, Lord Auck-

land wished to form an alliance with Kabul; but Dost Mohammed would not agree to his propositions. The first intercourse with Afghanistan had been in 1809, when an English envoy was well received by Shah Shuja. The Shah was subsequently dethroned, and took refuge with Ranjit Singh, the leader of the Sikhs, who received but robbed him. Among other things he deprived him of the famous diamond, the "Koh-i-nor," which was afterwards taken by the English army, and given to the Queen. The Governor-General determined to restore Shah Shuja to power, thinking that gratitude would make him the friend of the English. Accordingly an English army went with him through Sindh into Afghanistan. Kandahar and Kabul surrendered; Dost Mohammed was sent to India, and Shah Shuja was enthroned in 1839. The war was considered over, but for two years the English troops remained in cantonments. At the end of that time Sir Alexander Barnes, the Resident, was murdered in Kabul, as was also Sir W. Macnaghten, the Political Agent, at an interview with the son of Dost Mohammed. The general in command was old and ill, and seemed not to know what to do. After waiting for two months, he began a retreat with 4,000 soldiers and 12,000 camp-followers to India, through the mountain passes in the midst of winter. The attacks of the Afghans were scarcely more deadly than the bitter cold. Of the 16,000 who left Kabul, only one man, Dr. Brydon, survived to reach Jalalabad, where Sir Robert Sale and his detachment were holding out.

Jalalabad was not relieved until 1842. The relieving forces fought their way to Kabul, where they recovered the English prisoners, and destroyed part of

the city. Shah Shuja had been assassinated. Dost Mohammed was allowed to return, and reigned until his death, in 1863. The expedition had caused an immense loss of life, and had gained nothing but the hatred of a warlike people.

War with Sindh. 1843.—Sindh was ruled by three amirs, one a man of over eighty. They had consented, under pressure, to make a treaty and receive a subsidiary force. They were accused of intriguing with Persia, and Sir Charles Napier was sent against them in 1843. Major, afterwards Sir James, Outram, the Resident, made every effort for peace. But the amirs, seeing all the hostile preparations, began war. Napier with 3,000 men overcame 20,000 in the battle of Miani, and Sindh was annexed, a step which does not now find many defenders.

The Sikh War. 1845.—It was when Sir Henry Hardinge was Governor-General that the first Sikh War occurred. The Sikhs were originally only a religious sect. They had thrown off some of the trammels of Brahminism, and thence called themselves the *Khalsa; i.e. liberated.* On the breaking up of the Mogul empire, they acquired some territory. At one time they joined Holkar against the English; but soon left him, and their leader, Ranjit Singh, made treaties with the English, which he kept. He died in 1839, and a Sikh army invaded the British possessions in 1845. The Governor-General and Sir H. Gough, the commander-in-chief, came against them. In three [illegible] four fiercely-contested battles were fought, and [illegible]khs were driven back across the Sutlej. Lahore [illegible]ered. The infant son of the Raja was placed [illegible] the throne, with Major, afterwards Sir H., Lawrence

as Resident. A British army was left in the "Punjab," and a tract of land was annexed between the Sutlej and Ravi, two of the "five rivers" from which it takes its name. Sir H. Hardinge was made Viscount, and was succeeded, in 1848, by Lord Dalhousie.

Lord Dalhousie. 1848–1856.—The new Governor-General promoted the making of roads and canals, introduced comparatively cheap postage and the electric telegraph, and under his administration the first Indian railway was commenced. Yet his rule was not a peaceful one. Two British officers were killed by fanatics at Multan, and thereupon the Sikh army came together again, and the second Sikh war broke out, in 1848. The English suffered a terrible defeat at Chilianwala, losing many men, besides colours and guns. Sir C. Napier was sent from England with reinforcements; but before their arrival Lord Gough had utterly defeated the Sikhs and their Afghan allies at Guzerat. The child-raja was given an allowance and sent to England, where he is well known as the Maharaja Duleep Singh. The Punjab was annexed and well administered; its inhabitants found themselves much better off than under their old rulers, and became most loyal.

The second Burmese war, of which we have already spoken, took place in 1852. Under Lord Dalhousie's administration, several protected states were annexed on account of the failure of male heirs. We have already mentioned Satara and Nagpore. According to native custom, an adopted son stood in exactly the same position as a real one would do. The English authorities allowed this as to private property, but would not do so with regard to the succession to

sovereignty. They made exceptions, however; and upon many of the native princes the right of adoption has been conferred. Oudh was annexed in 1856, on the ground that the Government could no longer countenance "an administration fraught with suffering to millions." Yet this annexation, probably one of the most justifiable on record, is supposed to have been one of the reasons for the Sepoy mutiny, which broke out in 1857 under Lord Canning's administration.

The Mutiny.—What actually brought on this great rising is unknown. The immediate cause is supposed to have been a belief that the new cartridges served out to the Sepoys were greased with some fat unclean to the men. The Sepoys at Meerut were first to mutiny. On May 10th, 1857, they killed every European they met, and went to Delhi. The next day they proclaimed Emperor Bahadur Shah, the representative of the Moguls, the second in succession from Shah Alam, who was living there as an English pensioner. The Madras and Bombay armies remained faithful, as did also the Sikhs; but everywhere else the Sepoys rose. Some of the Nizam's soldiers attacked the Resident; but the able measures of Sir Salar Jung, his chief minister, soon restored order. Holkar could not restrain his soldiers from joining the mutiny, but no blame was attached to him; while Sindhia, in spite of great temptation to the contrary, was so conspicuously loyal, that he was obliged to take refuge with the English. Sir Jung Bahadur, of Nepal, assisted the English with his troops, as did other native princes.

Massacre of Cawnpore.—The largest Sepoy garrison

was in Cawnpore. Nana Sahib, who lived near, professed the most friendly feeling for the English; but as soon as the men mutinied, in June, he put himself at their head. The English defended themselves as best they could for nineteen days. Then the Nana offered them a safe conduct to Allahabad, and they embarked on the river. They were at once fired on, and but one boat, with four men, escaped to tell the tale. The others were obliged to return to Cawnpore, and the men were killed immediately. General Havelock's army hurried to the scene, and on its approach all the women and children were murdered.

Delhi was besieged by British troops early in June, and taken by assault in September. Bahadur Shah was made prisoner, and lost even his old semblance of royalty.

The Siege of Lucknow.—The European inhabitants of Lucknow retired into the Residency, which Sir H. Lawrence had fortified and provisioned. They were besieged on the 2nd of July by the Sepoys, and on the 4th Lawrence was mortally wounded. Great hardships were suffered. Havelock and Outram reached the city in September, but they had not sufficient force to drive back the rebels. The Sepoys were reinforced by the people at large, who in Oudh alone joined the soldiery in their revolt. On the arrival of Sir Colin Campbell (Lord Clyde) in November, the English were able to withdraw from Lucknow under the protection of his troops; but he did not consider himself strong enough to risk a battle.

Suppression of the Revolt.—The fall of Delhi and the relief of Lucknow had a great effect upon the rebels, and also left the English troops which had been

engaged there free for other undertakings. Large reinforcements came out from home. The Sepoys had no concerted plans of action, and were gradually subdued by different English armies, although fighting went on until 1859.

India under the Crown.—In 1858 the rule of the Company came to an end, and the government of India was transferred to the Crown. A proclamation in November of that year promised political justice and religious toleration, and offered an amnesty to all but murderers.

For some years the history of India was more peaceful and less eventful. The people of Bhutan, in the Eastern Himalayas, had claimed part of Assam. After it was annexed they received yearly compensation. During Sir John Lawrence's governor-generalship they came into British territory, plundering and murdering, but were reduced in 1865. A terrible famine occurred in Orissa, which caused great loss of life. In 1874 a similar disastrous result was warded off by a system of government relief in connexion with public works. Long want of rain caused another famine from 1876 to 1878. The Prince of Wales visited India in 1875, and met with an enthusiastic reception. In 1877 the Queen was proclaimed Empress of India.

The Second Afghan War. 1878.—In 1878 another Afghan war began. The Amir, Shere Ali, was suspected of favouring the Russians. Kabul was taken, and he died a fugitive. His son, Yakub Khan, made a treaty, according to which the British frontier was extended, and a British Resident allowed at Kabul. The post was given to Sir Louis Cavagnari, who was

shortly afterwards murdered. Fighting began again, Kabul was once more taken, and Yakub was sent to India. An army under Ayub Khan defeated a British brigade; but Sir F. Roberts made a splendid march from Kabul to Kandahar, and entirely defeated Ayub in September, 1880. Abdurrahman Khan, representative of Dost Mohammed, was acknowledged as Amir, and the English army was gradually withdrawn.

In 1881 the population of British India was 252,660,550, nearly one-seventh of the whole population of the globe.

Our Indian possessions came into our hands in various ways. Too often might has been held to make right. But in these days we may hope that might may be right in a better sense, and mean right government and due regard for the governed. The chief justification of our rule is that India should be the better for it, and surely it is a justification that will not be wanting.

CHAPTER VIII.

AFRICAN SETTLEMENTS. ISLANDS.

The Cape Colony. 1806.

THE Cape of Good Hope was discovered by the Portuguese; but they made no settlement there. In the seventeenth century it became the custom for outward-bound ships to bury boxes containing their letters at a particular spot. These were looked for, and carried back by the homeward-bound. Some Englishmen planted a flag to take possession; but no action was taken in consequence, and in 1650 the Dutch began a colony. After the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in 1685, many French Huguenots fled to Holland. They were transferred to the Cape, where they introduced grape-culture and wine-making.

The Dutch Settlers.—The Dutch introduced Malay slaves, and also enslaved some of the natives, to whom they gave the name of Hottentots, and whom they treated very badly. The first governor, speaking of their cattle, says he "wondered at the ways of Providence, which had bestowed such fine gifts upon the heathen." The Boers, as the settlers were called, forgot their Christianity, and considered themselves as Israelites, and the natives as Canaanites, whom they

were to destroy and drive out of the land. This has remained their spirit, and has caused much of the difficulty the English have had in dealing with them, and also with the natives, who did not at first distinguish between the two sorts of white men; nor had they always reason so to do. The colonists resented the strict subjection in which they were kept by their Home Government, and it was thought that they would gladly submit to France. It was therefore in order that the Cape might not fall into French hands that an English fleet went there in 1795 to hold the colony for the Prince of Orange. The Council refused the offered protection, upon which the English took possession. The Cape was restored to Holland in 1803, taken again in 1806, and confirmed to England at the peace of 1814.

The Colony becomes English.—The end of the war against Napoleon left England with many discharged soldiers and sailors, and money was granted to send them to South Africa as colonists. Nearly 4,000, among whom were people of almost every occupation, arrived in 1820. They were settled in the Eastern province at Algoa Bay, and founded Graham's Town and Port Elizabeth. The failure of their crops caused privation at first, and success appeared doubtful; but after a few years sheep-farming was introduced, and things began to improve. The immigration was not large; but still settlers came, and the colony was able to suppert itself. The East province, on the whole, got on better than the West. It was not until 1828 that English was made the official language, and for some time afterwards Dutch also was used in proclamations.

In 1849 a shipload of convicts was sent to the

Cape, but they were not allowed to land. This
sified the agitation as to the method of gover
which had already begun. In 1853 the colo
ceived a constitution which did not work very
and in 1872 it was granted responsible governme

The Kaffir Wars.—The prosperity of the
Colony was hindered by three Kaffir wars, conc
the justice of which there is much difference of o
On the one side it is said that the Kaffirs encr
and robbed, and deserved punishment; on the
that the colonists were the aggressors. Which
the true point of view, it is manifest that the f
on the frontier had to suffer. The Home Gover
several times condemned the way in which th
was carried on. We are told that on one occasi
governor of the Cape put his foot on the nec
great chief to teach him his place. The Kaffi
"I always thought you a great man till this day.
whichever side the right may have originally be
true dignity was here with the black man.

These wars only subdued the Kaffirs tempo
but in 1856–7 their number was greatly r
in a most extraordinary way. They were to
a girl, whom they considered a prophetess, t
their cattle, and that then the dead would rise
and they would all live together upon earth. A
number obeyed, and the result was that they d
starvation.

Increase of the Colony.—Men of the German I
raised during the Crimean war, were sent to
Kaffraria, where they were joined by more o
countrymen. This territory was incorporated
Cape Colony in 1865. The Basutos in 1868 re

British protection, which they had asked as a safeguard against the Boers. In 1871 Basutoland was joined to the Cape. There are very few European settlers, and it is not dealt with according to the general law, but is specially legislated for by the governor. This is also the case in the Transkei or native Kaffraria, which was annexed and incorporated by degrees between 1876 and 1880. Namaqualand was annexed in 1880. It is rich in copper; but the soil is barren and the climate excessively hot.

The Discovery of Diamonds.—In 1867 a Dutch farmer in Griqualand saw some children playing with a bright pebble that they had found near the Orange River. He admired it, and it was given to him. It proved to be a very valuable diamond, and others were found in the neighbourhood. By 1870 a regular search for them was begun, and diggers poured into Griqualand West. It was to maintain law and order among these immigrants that the territory was annexed in 1877. The original inhabitants were a mixed Dutch and Hottentot race. In eleven years diamonds to the value of £20,000,000 were found. In 1881 they amounted to half the exports from Cape Colony, the prosperity of which was thus greatly increased.

Prosperity of Cape Colony.—The settlement at the Cape had been originally founded as a station for Dutch ships on the way to India. To the English it was long looked upon as chiefly valuable for the same reason. The settlers regarded with dismay the opening of the "overland route" and the construction of the Suez Canal. Since then, however, the productiveness of the colony has increased so much that the "calling

trade" has become a matter of no moment. Wool is very largely exported. The amount has risen from over 23,000,000 pounds in 1860, to over 42,000,000 in 1881. Ostrich farming has become a profitable industry. The export has increased from 2,287 pounds of feathers in 1860, to 193,612 pounds in 1881. There were in 1881 no Europeans in Namaqualand. In Basutoland there were only 469 to 127,707 natives. In the rest of the colony less than half were of European origin, and the majority of these were Cape-born. The greater number were of Dutch ancestry, though English predominated in the East; the rest were of French and German parentage. The white men amounted in all to 286,652, while of coloured races — Hottentots, Kaffirs, and Malays—there were 573,894.

Natal. 1835.

Natal was so named because seen by Vasco da Gama on Christmas-day, Christ's *natal*-day. Some English went there in 1823, but after a few years were driven away by the natives. In 1835 a small settlement was made from the Cape, and some Dutch also came thence, not knowing that the English were before them. The Dutch wished to make it an independent state of their own, but English troops were sent, and it was placed under the Cape Government. Those Dutch who were not willing to submit settled in the Orange River Territory, which was also annexed to the Cape, but afterwards restored to the Dutch. Some went over the Vaal river, where in 1852 their independence was acknowledged. The Transvaal was annexed by England in 1877, in great measure owing to a mistaken impression as to the wish of the people. War ensued, and it

was restored in 1881, Great Britain retaining the "suzerainty," or control over dealings with other states.

In 1848 a good many Germans emigrated to Natal. It was made a separate colony in 1856. Two years later there was an "assisted emigration" to it from England, which went on for some time. The native population is very large. Sugar-cane was introduced in 1849, and Indian coolies have been brought to cultivate it. Natal is rich in coal. It was the base of the Zulu War in 1879. The population in 1881 was, whites, 28,483; natives, 367,540; coolies, 20,196. Total, 416,219.

The West African Settlements.

The *West African Settlements* have never increased to any extent, as the climate is deadly to Europeans. Queen Elizabeth granted a charter for trade on the Gambia to one company, and forts were built on the Gold Coast by another in the time of Charles II. The trade from both settlements was almost entirely in slaves. Sierra Leone was procured from native chiefs in 1787 as a refuge for freed negroes, and in 1862 Sherbro was added to it. There are very few whites in the colony. Lagos was acquired in 1861, as an assistance in putting down the slave trade; its climate is not so unhealthy. All these colonies had at first separate governments; they were united and separated again several times. In 1872 the Dutch gave up all their settlements in this part of the world to the English. In 1874 the Gold Coast and Lagos were made one colony, Sierra Leone and Gambia another. There is no such good harbour as that of Sierra Leone for six hundred miles, and it might be a great em-

porium were it not for constant wars in the interior, which prevent the produce of the country from being brought to it. Most of the settlers on the Gambia are black, but a few English carry on trade. The possession of the Gold Coast has involved England in several wars with Ashanti. Some English merchants live there, and a few missionaries.

St. Helena. 1673. Ascension. 1815.

In 1673 *St. Helena*, an island to the west of Africa, was taken from the Dutch. It was of importance as a victualling place for ships on their way between England and India, especially when the Cape was in the hands of the Dutch. It lost its consequence when steamers began to be used for the eastern trade, and is now chiefly remembered as the prison and death-place of Napoleon I. *Ascension*, an island north of St. Helena, was so called by the Portuguese because discovered on Ascension-day, 1501. It was uninhabited when taken possession of by the English, at the time Napoleon was sent to St. Helena, in 1815. It is now used as a naval station, and has but few inhabitants.

Mauritius. 1810.

Mauritius and *Bourbon* were both taken from the French in 1810, but the latter was restored at the peace of Paris in 1814. Mauritius was discovered by the Portuguese in 1507, settled by the Dutch in 1598, and by them named after their Prince Maurice. They left it in 1710, not considering it of importance. The French took possession in 1721, and called it the Isle of France. It was not prosperous until Mahé de Labourdonnais was appointed governor. He was most energetic, made

good roads, and introduced the cultivation of sugar. The Seychelles, and many other small islands in the Indian Ocean, belong to its government, which is that of a Crown colony. They have but few inhabitants, immigrants from Mauritius. More than two-thirds of the population of Mauritius are Indians. The rest are of various races, the majority descendants of the French settlers. French, or a French patois, is still the language most in use. The trade is almost entirely in sugar, and chiefly with British South Africa. Little else is raised, even for home consumption; rice is imported from India.

Ceylon. 1796.

Ceylon was first colonized by the Portuguese, and then by the Dutch. It was taken by an expedition from Madras in 1796. For two years it remained under the East India Company, and then was made a Crown colony. The settlements were only on the sea-coast. In the interior a native kingdom, "Kandy," had been established for 2,000 years, but its prosperity had decayed. The ancient reservoirs had been destroyed by various causes, and fertile land had lapsed into jungle: at one period the harvests of Ceylon supplied the food of southern India. The English had to fight against two successive native kings. The second maintained his position, but afterwards treated his subjects so cruelly that they helped the English against him, and he was deposed and sent to India in 1815. There was a rebellion in 1817, and a less important one thirty years later. At first wild coffee was exported, which was of inferior quality, and only procured a low price. Coffee was first cultivated in 1824. Roads were made,

and the country opened up; more coffee plantations were begun, and the trade is now very valuable.

Straits Settlements.

The island of *Penang*, officially called "Prince of Wales' Island," lies close to the Malay peninsula. It was yielded for an annual payment, in 1785, by the native prince to whom it belonged. Province Wellesley, a long, narrow piece of land on the opposite coast, was acquired in 1800, in order to put a stop to the piracy, which existed to a great extent. *Malacca*, a town south of Penang, was in the hands of the Portuguese for about a hundred and fifty years; the Dutch took it and kept it nearly as long. It was taken by the English in 1795, in the course of the war in which England acquired all the Dutch colonies, though some of them were subsequently restored. Malacca became permanently English in 1824, in exchange for Bencoolen, in Sumatra, which the English agreed to leave to the Dutch, if they promised not to settle in the Malay peninsula. The trade of Malacca had been swallowed up in that of Penang, which in its turn has lost its importance in that of Singapore. Sir Stamford Raffles was governor of the Dutch Indies during the time that they were in English possession. In spite of Dutch opposition, he obtained from the Raja of Johore, in 1819, a grant of the island of *Singapore*, and administered it in the most able manner. Its position between India and China makes it most important for trade. At the time it became English the whole population was about 150 Malays. Now in the town alone there are over 50,000 inhabitants. A considerable number are

Chinese, many of them British subjects. Until 1867 the Straits Settlements belonged to the Government of India, but since then they have formed a separate Crown colony.

Labuan. 1848.

Labuan, an island off the coast of Borneo, was ceded to Britain in 1846, and occupied two years later. The trade between Borneo and India and China is carried on through it and Singapore. The inhabitants are principally Chinese and Malays, who have gone from Borneo since the cession. The first governor was Sir James Brooke, often spoken of as Raja Brooke. He helped the Sultan of Borneo against rebels, and in return received the province of Sarawak, in Borneo. Pirates, called sea Dyaks; and "head hunters," called land Dyaks; who killed people merely to increase the number of heads that they had taken, were the terror of this part of the world. Brooke organized expeditions against them, and strove to promote the well-being of the people under his rule. In consequence of his energy, Sarawak is now said to be as safe as England. He offered his territory to England, but it was not accepted. Thus, though possessed and governed by an Englishman, it is not a colony; but Englishmen may well be proud of it.

Hong Kong. 1848.

After a war between the English and Chinese the island of *Hong Kong* was ceded by the Chinese in 1841. The cession was confirmed by the Treaty of Nankin, in 1842. Kowloon, on the mainland opposite, was ceded in 1860, after another war. Hong Kong is one of the small group of islands called Ladrones, by the Por-

tuguese from "ladro," thief, on account of the character of their inhabitants. Piracy, though kept under in the neighbourhood, is by no means extirpated. The island was for some years extremely unhealthy, owing, it is believed, to the amount of granite in a decaying state which it contained. Of late it has lost this evil repute. It was very expensive to the Home Government for a time, but now has usually a surplus revenue. Its population is of many nationalities, principally Chinese, two-thirds of whom are British-born subjects. Half of the white population are Portuguese, not Portuguese from Europe, but from the Colonies. It is the centre of the trade between South China and Europe and America. This fact distinguishes what may be called the "military posts" in the East from those in Europe. The European ones only have importance as military posts, while those in the East have a commercial value as well. Hong Kong is a Crown colony.

A coolie traffic was carried on between South China and South America, which was virtually slavery, as many of the coolies were kidnapped. To England and Japan belongs the honour of having crushed it.

Aden. 1839.

Aden, a town on the South Arabian coast, built in the crater of an extinct volcano, was of old important on account of its position. Its value was lost when the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope was discovered, but returned at the opening of the "Overland Route." It was held in turn by Romans, Portuguese, Turks, and Arabs. The latter have a bad reputation for their treatment of shipwrecked crews, and it was in consequence of a case

of the kind that the Sultan promised to sell the town to the English. His son refused to carry out the agreement, and Aden was taken in 1839. It is a great coaling station, the coal being brought from England. There are immense tanks, of unknown date, cut in the solid rock to hold the torrents of rain which fall, sometimes only at the interval of years. Each tank overflows into the one beneath it. They have been put in order to a certain extent, but are apt to be choked or damaged by the stones and rubbish brought down by the water.

CHAPTER IX.

AUSTRALASIA.

THE Australian colonies have a special interest of their own, because they were colonized from the first by Englishmen. It is true that this was the case with Barbados and the Bermudas; but they belong to a different order of colonies, and do not afford a home for our labouring classes. Of those which do so, the Cape Colony was planted by the Dutch, Canada by France. The old American colonies, which also were the fruits of English enterprize, have passed out of our possession. This may very possibly become the case with Australia also; but in the present altered conditions the separation, if it does come, will be of a different kind. The tie may be loosened with goodwill on both sides, instead of being roughly broken by war, with the suffering and hatred attendant upon war.

Discovery of Australia.—In the end of the sixteenth century we hear of an "Australis Terra," which was supposed to be a great continent reaching to the South Pole. The Portuguese, early in the seventeenth century, speak of "Great Java," by which name it is thought Australia is meant; and in 1606 Torres passed

along its north coast in a ship sent from Peru. He went through the strait which divides Australia from New Guinea, to which his name was given in 1770 by Captain Cook. Tasman, in 1642, discovered Van Dieman's Land, and gave it the name of the governor of Batavia, whence he had sailed. Two years later he visited the north coast of Australia, which he called New Holland. Other Dutch navigators went there also, as did Dampier, but their opinion was unfavourable. An English colony was spoken of in 1723, but never carried out. In 1769 Captain Cook went to New Zealand, and thence to New South Wales, to which he gave its name on account of the resemblance of the coast to that of Wales. He landed in "Botany Bay," so called because of the great variety of plants seen there.

New South Wales. 1788.

At the close of the American war England wanted a place to which to send her convicts, who had formerly gone to the Carolinas. By Cook's advice a shipload was sent out, which reached Botany Bay early in 1788. The place was not found suitable, and the governor, Captain Phillip, went on to Port Jackson, where in a short time the convicts were landed, and Sydney was founded. Many of the convicts escaped, some with an idea that by going north they would get to China; those who were not retaken either died of starvation or were killed by the natives. The town of Sydney grew very slowly, crops did not prosper, and much want was suffered. Nearly all food was brought from England or India. It is doubtful how the colony, if such it may be called, could have con-

tinued to exist but for the energy of the governor. By slow degrees the difficulties were overcome. The first step towards prosperity was made when Captain John Macarthur, a free settler, introduced sheep in 1797, in spite of abuse of what were called his "wool-gathering theories." The next year there were in the colony seven horses, as many cattle, and twenty-nine sheep. Before long, wool became an export. In 1807 it amounted to 245 lbs. There was now something to work upon, and the right man came to do it. Of General Macquarie, who was governor from 1810 to 1820, it is said, "He found a garrison and a gaol, and left the broad and deep foundations of an empire." He did not encourage free emigration, but favoured the "emancipists," as the convicts who had worked out their time were called; and in many cases he shortened the period of servitude. The man who can change criminals into useful members of society, certainly does more for his race than he who hardens them into brutes. But it is easy to understand the objections of the free settlers in New South Wales to General Macquarie's proceedings. In 1821 the population was nearly 30,000, of whom 20,000 were or had been convicts; the rest were soldiers and settlers. At this time but little land was under cultivation; but the number of horses had risen to over 4000, of cattle to over 68,000, and sheep nearly 120,000. 175,433 lbs. of wool were exported. Attempts were made at exploring the interior, which were distinguished by indomitable perseverance under great difficulties, the want of water being a very serious one. Captain Sturt, in travels which lasted from 1827 to 1831, disproved the existence of a supposed inland sea, and traced the course of

the "Murray" to its mouth. This led to the colonization of South Australia.

After 1840 New South Wales refused to receive any more convicts. Gold had been occasionally found from the first, and convicts who had brought it in had been punished for stealing and melting it, as it was supposed they had done. In 1844 Sir Roderick Murchison gave his opinion on geological grounds that gold must exist. In 1851 a man named Hargraves noticed the likeness of part of New South Wales to the gold-fields in California, where he had been. In February he went in search, and in May it was known that gold had been found at Bathurst. The superior richness of the gold-fields of Victoria, discovered shortly afterwards, soon gave them the first place.

The first university in Australia was inaugurated in 1852, at Sydney. In 1855 the colony obtained responsible government. From 1874 to 1880 the average excess of immigration over emigration amounted to 10,000 yearly. The staple is wool, but tin and copper are also exported, as well as tallow and preserved meat. Since 1863 the produce of the coal mines has been regularly increasing. Coal is now sent, not only to the other colonies, but also to China and the United States. New South Wales is also rich in iron; but difficulty of carriage and distance from coal have as yet interfered with its use. The growth of silk has been suggested as a profitable industry; but it involves so much labour that it is not likely to succeed where labour is dear. In 1881 the population of New South Wales was 749,482. The export of wool amounted to 139,601,506 lbs.

Victoria. 1833-1851.

Victoria was originally part of New South Wales. The French had given the name of "Terre Napoléon" to the south coast of Australia, and, lest they should be the first to make a settlement, English colonization was hurried on. Convicts were sent to Port Phillip in 1803, but no water was found where they landed, and they were transferred to Van Dieman's Land. One man who escaped, lived for more than thirty years among the natives, and could scarcely understand or speak English when he met his countrymen again. In 1824 an unsuccessful attempt was made at a settlement. In 1833 Thomas Henty came from Van Dieman's Land, and saw the capabilities of Port Phillip; the next year he brought his family, sheep and cattle, and settled in Portland Bay. The following year another settler came, who established himself near what is now the site of Geelong. And in the same year (1835) a hut was built on the Yarra-Yarra river, where now stands the great city of Melbourne. In 1836 the population was 224; in 1838 it was 3511. In 1837 the building of Melbourne and of Geelong was begun, under the auspices of the Governor of New South Wales. In 1840 the population was 6000, and the trade already worth over [illegible]000,000. A piece of land in Melbourne was re-sold at the end of twelve years for more than four hundred [illegible] its original price, though that had been con[illegible] a high one. This is a sufficient index of the [illegible] of the colony, although in 1843–44 there [illegible] commercial crisis, brought on by over speculation. [illegible] always been jealousy between "Port Phillip" [illegible] South Wales, and in 1850 the former asked

for separation. When gold was found at Bathurst, in 1851, a reward was offered for its discovery in the newer colony. It was found on the 1st of July near Ballaarat, the same day that Port Phillip began its independent existence as "Victoria," the name given to it by the Queen. Immigrants immediately crowded to Ballaarat; at first from the other colonies, and as soon as possible from England. In the first month there were almost 10,000. In 1852 they came at the rate of 2,000 a week. Many of course were unsuccessful. Fortunes were speedily made and as speedily lost. They were perhaps most certainly made by those who supplied the necessaries of life to the diggers, and charged exorbitant prices for them. Melbourne profited by the way in which money was spent. It seemed as if with many the only idea was to get rid of their gold as fast as possible, and go back to get more. A number of Chinese came, and also ticket-of-leave men from Van Dieman's Land. The latter frequently took to the bush, and robbed and murdered. From 1852 to 1861 the yearly export of gold was 2,000,000 ounces, but it has since decreased. The mines are regularly worked, but the wild rush has long been over, and now the staple export is wool. Responsible government was obtained in 1856. In 1881 there were 862,346 inhabitants, about half of them living in towns. The proportion of urban population is unusually large in Australia. One reason probably is that so much land is used for sheep, and instead of shepherds being employed to look after them, as was formerly the case, their feeding-grounds are fenced in. The economy of labour is found to repay the expense. Only "boundary riders" are employed, to see that everything is in proper

repair. This holds good of all the colonies except North Queensland, where there has not yet been time to fence in the feeding ground.

Queensland. 1824–1859.

Queensland, the youngest of the Australian colonies, was also originally a part of New South Wales, and was then called Moreton Bay. Its nucleus was a convict settlement at Brisbane, now its capital, in 1824. The coming of free settlers was not encouraged until 1842. In 1859 it obtained a separate existence, and responsible government soon afterwards. Two-thirds of its territory are in the tropics, so it produces cotton and sugar, as well as the wool, tallow, and preserved meat produced by all the Australian colonies. Small cultivators grow the sugar-cane, and sell it to the mill-owners. In this way the manufacture of sugar does not require such a large capital as in the West Indies, where the producer makes the sugar. The trade of Queensland is principally with the other colonies; but it also exports to Great Britain. In 1846 the whole population was 2257. In 1881 it was 213,525; in the latter number are included over 11,000 Chinese and 6000 Polynesians. The immigration is now mostly of these two races, who can be better employed in sugar cultivation than British labourers.

Queensland has gold, not so pure as in Victoria, but its yield has not diminished, as in the other colonies. It is also rich in copper and iron, which are not yet worked for want of capital and means of carriage.

West Australia. 1829.

West Australia was settled independently in 1829. In the first year 850 immigrants arrived, with sheep

and cattle, and 1125 the next. They made a settlement on the "Swan River," of which the colony at first bore the name, and founded Perth, its capital. The coast proved barren. They had difficulties with the natives, and did not prosper. In 1840 there were less than 4000 inhabitants. Agriculture and sheep-farming improved; but the latter is prevented in many districts by the prevalence of a shrub poisonous to sheep. In 1849 there was a large emigration to South Australia. In the same year the colony, despairing of success with free labour, asked that convicts might be sent out. A stipulation was made that government should also send an equal number of free men. In 1866 two-thirds of the inhabitants were either convicts or in charge of them, so that West Australia was said to be "a great English prison, not a colony." Transportation was stopped in 1869, on account of the objections of the other colonies. Since then West Australia has become more prosperous, though not up to the usual Australian standard, and emigration exceeds immigration. A considerable quantity of sandal-wood is exported to Singapore and China, where it is chiefly used in making incense. The jarrah tree, a eucalyptus, is very common. Its wood resists the white ant and *teredo navalis* (the mollusk that destroys wood under water) and would be a valuable export were there facilities for transport.

West Australia is still without responsible government. The inhabitants, who are all in or near the towns, numbered 29,708 in 1881.

South Australia.

South Australia was colonized, in 1836, on the Wakefield scheme, which provided that land should be

sold at a "sufficient price," in order that individual colonists might get no more than they could really occupy, instead of "squatting" on a vast extent of land, as had been the case elsewhere. After a trial at an unsuitable spot, Adelaide was founded. The colony increased rapidly; it had 6000 inhabitants in 1838, and 10,000 in 1839. The founders were extravagant, and it would have been ruined but for money lent by the English government, which has all been repaid. In 1842 copper was found, from which its prosperity may be dated. It received a severe check in 1851, when nearly a quarter of the population went to Victoria in search of gold. Many, however, returned, and wealth increased. The Murray is navigable for 2000 miles; but there is an impassable bar at its mouth. Probably some expedient will be devised to obviate this disadvantage. It is the only navigable river in Australia, except in Queensland, where a few rivers can be navigated for a short distance. In 1856 South Australia obtained responsible government. Its territory, over which the telegraph line passes, stretches right up to the north. Very little is known as yet of the northern territory. A few Europeans and some 3000 Chinese from Queensland dig for gold there. Palmerston has a good harbour, but only 400 inhabitants as yet.

Besides wool, copper, and wine, South Australia exports wheat to a large extent, and supplies the neighbouring colonies. Attention has been turned to the drying of raisins and currants. Almonds also are grown, and olives, from which oil is made. The population in 1881 was estimated at 286,324.

The Native Races.—The Australian natives are of a

very low type; they are rapidly diminishing in number, and will probably be extinct before long. There is no doubt that they have been hardly dealt with in many cases; but they seem unable to learn anything from civilization but its vices. They are passing away before the white man, and so are many of the native animals; while those brought from England have prospered and increased. There are now great numbers of wild horses and cattle. The original wild bee is not nearly so common as the English bee. Salmon and trout have been introduced into the rivers.

Norfolk Island.—This island was uninhabited when visited by Cook in 1774. It was made a penal settlement in 1787. There was difficulty in supplying it with food, and the convicts were removed to Van Dieman's Land in 1805. Afterwards it was found to be fertile, and convicts were again sent there until 1856, when they also were taken to Van Dieman's Land. Norfolk Island was given up to the Pitcairn Islanders, descendants of the mutineers of the *Bounty*, who are an interesting, primitive set of people. Some of them went back to Pitcairn Island. Norfolk Island is under the protection of the Governor of New South Wales.

Tasmania. 1805.

Tasmania, or *Van Dieman's Land*, as it was at first called, was for some time supposed to be part of Australia. George Bass, one of the early explorers, a surgeon in the navy, in the course of a voyage of six hundred miles in an open boat, discovered, in 1798, the strait which bears his name. The convicts on Norfolk Island were sent, in 1805, to Van Dieman's Land as a dependency of New South Wales. It was separated

in 1825, but continued to be almost entirely a penal colony, though free immigrants were allowed to come in 1819, and a few had done so before. These obtained convict servants, who as a rule were terribly brutalized, as indeed were those also who ruled over them. For some time there was constant warfare between the colonists and natives. In 1837 the latter were induced to go to Flinders Island, where the last of them died in 1876. In 1840 transportation to New South Wales was stopped, and an immense number of convicts were sent to Van Dieman's Land. There was not enough work for them to do, and they became more and more degraded. In 1853 Van Dieman's Land also refused to receive them, and at the same time its name, which bore an evil repute, was changed to Tasmania. In 1856 it obtained responsible government.

Tasmania is the least successful of these colonies. It seems to have been enervated by too much extraneous help, and has progressed languidly. It has fine roads, made by convict labour. Agriculture is much hindered by the enormous number of rabbits, which were originally introduced from England. The chief export is wool. English fruits thrive splendidly, but the export of jam is hampered by the protective tariff of Victoria, its natural market. 150,000 lbs. are however exported yearly. Most of the immigration is from Australia, and the emigration thither nearly equals it. The population in 1881 was 115,705.

New Zealand. 1840.

The Maoris, inhabitants of New Zealand, are very much superior to the native Australians, although when first discovered they were cannibals. According to

their own traditions, they came from some island to the north about the beginning of the fifteenth century. Similarity of language makes it likely that they are a Malay race.

Tasman sailed past New Zealand in 1642, and gave it its name. Captain Cook landed in 1769; at some places he came into collision with the natives, and at others got on well. The French also visited the islands, and a party of them were killed in revenge for previous illtreatment. But no European, except a shipwrecked sailor, who was there for some time, lived in New Zealand until 1814, when a mission was established. After this, unhappily, there came others whom the natives called "devil's missionaries," runaway sailors and convicts. The crews of whalers did not improve matters when they landed. It is recorded that the master of a ship gave a Maori chief some corrosive sublimate with which to destroy his enemies. Still, cannibalism was almost extinct when a New Zealand Company was organized in England. The Wakefield scheme was proposed, and different settlements were to be made of people with different religious tenets. Naturally this fell to the ground. Otago, the most southern province, was founded by Scotch Presbyterians in 1848, and Dunedin, its capital, had a bishop in 1871.

The Maoris.—A party of colonists bought a large tract of land in 1840, and founded Wellington. The English Government had rather opposed colonization, but as it did take place, New Zealand was declared under New South Wales, and a governor was sent. He made a treaty with the Maoris, by which they acknowledged the sovereignty of the Queen; while, on the other hand, their land was allowed to be

their own, and they were promised protection. Subsequent difficulties mostly arose from the fact that in neither of these two cases did the Maoris quite understand what they were doing; besides, those who sold land and made promises had not always a right so to do. There have been two Maori wars; one between 1845 and 1848, the other from 1860 to 1870. But since then a better spirit has grown up. These wars were in the North Island, where the Maoris are most numerous and fierce; they still hold more land there than they can use. In the South Island there has only been one collision, in 1843. All the land has been bought by Government, but "Reserves" are kept for the natives, who number over 2,000. The whole Maori population in 1881 was 44,099, being 502 more than in 1878. For some time before it had steadily decreased. The Maoris are capable of civilization, and now have representatives in the New Zealand Ministry and Parliament.

The Growth of the Colony.—New Zealand was declared independent in 1841, and in 1843 was estimated to have already 13,128 inhabitants. In 1849 it declined a proposal to receive convicts. Different provinces were founded by degrees; each had its own government, subject to the general government at Auckland. Until 1870 immigration was a provincial matter. Responsible government was granted in 1856. In 1865 Wellington was made the capital, on account of its central position. And in 1876 the division into nine provinces was abolished, sixty-three counties were substituted, and provincial councils ceased to exist.

Gold had been early found in the North Island, but was not worked until 1852. It was poor compared with

that discovered in the South Island in 1861. This discovery gave a great impulse to emigration, and between 1861 and 1867 the population more than doubled. Since 1871 the supply of gold has declined. New Zealand stands next to Victoria and New South Wales in the amount of wool exported. In 1881 this was 53,383,564 lbs.; its money value was more than three times that of the output of gold. The other principal exports are grain, gold, and kauri gum, which exudes from the kauri tree, but can only be got after the wood has decayed, when it is dug out of the ground.

The population increases more rapidly than anywhere else, both naturally and by immigration. In 1881 it amounted to 489,983, of whom about nine-twentieths were native-born; the same proportion came from Great Britain and Ireland, and the rest from other countries.

Fiji Islands. 1874.

The *Fiji Islands*, in the South Pacific Ocean, are the last-acquired of the British colonies. The inhabitants, formerly cannibals, were converted to Christianity by Wesleyan missionaries. In 1859 the sovereignty was offered to England, but was not accepted. During the American war the necessity for obtaining cotton took many English to these islands, which are suitable for its cultivation. Sugar also grows there. After attempts at a central government a large number of the chiefs again asked for annexation, and their request was granted in 1874. Unhappily an epidemic of measles shortly afterwards carried off 40,000 of the natives, to whom until then it had been an unknown disease. Some of the mountain tribes rebelled, but

have been pacified and Christianized. The customs of the natives are recognized, and they are allowed in great measure to govern themselves. English emigrants have gone to Fiji, but not in any great numbers, the older and larger colonies being more attractive. The principal immigration is from Australia. Revenue and trade are increasing.

CHAPTER X.

COLONIES IN AMERICA, THE WEST INDIES, AND OTHER ISLANDS.

The Dominion of Canada.

DURING the war between England and the United States, 1812–14, Canada was attacked by the States, who had expected the Canadians to join them. They, however, remained faithful to England; nevertheless the Executive Government and the Houses of Assembly were continually at variance. There was ill-feeling between Upper and Lower Canada. On public questions the English inhabitants of Upper Canada, were divided into political parties; so that the French in Lower Canada, all voting together, held the balance of power. Besides this, their situation gave them control over exports and imports. General discontent led to a rebellion in 1838. After it was put down Lord Durham was sent out with special powers. He recommended that the two provinces should be united, which was done in 1840. To him also occurred the idea of the federation of all British America, which afterwards came to pass, when the Dominion of Canada was created in 1867, with four provinces—Ontario and Quebec, formerly Upper and Lower Canada, Nova

Scotia, and New Brunswick. Power was given to take in new provinces; and British Columbia joined in 1871, Prince Edward's Island in 1873, and the rest of British North America in 1880. Newfoundland still remains a separate government (1883). It obtained responsible government in 1855, last of all the old colonies of British North America.

British Columbia. 1858.—In 1858 the licence of the Hudson's Bay Company was revoked, and the colony of British Columbia was formed out of part of its territory. Gold had been found there, and it was necessary to establish a government to keep order among the great influx of diggers. These form by far the greater part of the population, and only come for a time; many of them are Chinese. Of regular settlers there are about 16,000. The productions other than gold are silver, furs, coals, and lumber. Vancouver Island was united to British Columbia in 1866. A settlement had been attempted there towards the end of the eighteenth century, but it was only made a colony in 1859.

Manitoba. 1870.—The old Red River Settlement of the Hudson's Bay Company was made a separate colony in 1870 as Manitoba. An insurrection broke out among the old inhabitants, but when a military force was sent to put it down they made no resistance. Immigration has been greater there lately than in any other part of the Dominion. The larger number of settlers are Scots, but there are members of other nations also. Among them may be mentioned Icelanders and Mennonites, the latter a sect of Anabaptists, who have had to leave Russia because they will *not serve* in the army.

North-West Territories. 1876.—Rupert's Land was separated from the government of Manitoba under this name. It is not possible to ascertain the actual immigration into Canada, as much of it passes through the United States. Many Frenchmen went there when Alsace and Lorraine were taken into the German empire. An interesting immigration has of late been carried on, by which homes are found in Canada for destitute English children. The plan seems to work well.

The Dominion has always had responsible government. Canada and Nova Scotia had obtained it in 1847. The principal exports are bread-stuffs and wood. The population was 4,324,810 in 1881. Four-fifths were native-born.

West Indies, &c.

We have seen what a terrible curse slavery was in the West Indies, not only to the slaves, but to their masters. Its abolition was violently opposed, and the decline in prosperity was attributed entirely to the want of slave labour, even where, as in Jamaica, it had begun some time before. In looking back upon the past the loss caused by hurricane and earthquake was forgotten, and only the record of riches kept. Sugar cultivation cannot well be carried on by the English race; but those islands which obtained Indian and other coolies in place of negroes, who would not work, continued to do fairly well, in spite of the blow given by free trade.

After the abolition of the slave trade in 1807, slaves were still bought in Jamaica from Spaniards and Portuguese. There was plenty of waste land, which would bring forth enough for the necessities of life,

though it was not suited for sugar plantations. To this the negroes betook themselves when slavery ended, in 1838; while in Barbados, where the whole ground was under cultivation, they went on working steadily. In 1865 there were disturbances between the white and black population. After these, Jamaica gave up the representative institutions which it had held for nearly two hundred years, and became a Crown colony. Latterly there have been signs of returning prosperity.

The Bahamas.—In 1873 the Turk and Caicos Islands were separated from the rest of the Bahamas, and put under the Government of Jamaica. Of late sugar is more cultivated than it used to be, in all the Bahamas: the islands trade in fruit and sponges with England and the United States. During the American Civil War they were a station for blockade-runners.

The Leeward Islands.—The Leeward Islands were formed into a confederation in 1871. In the time of William and Mary also, they had a common legislature. The seat of government is at Antigua. The remaining islands are St. Kitts (with Anguilla as a dependency), Nevis, Dominica, and the Virgins; the last-named were visited by a terrible hurricane in 1867. At Tortola nearly two-thirds of the town were destroyed, and no trees left standing; another hurricane in 1871 was nearly as bad. Much trouble was caused in Dominica by fugitive negroes, who took to the mountains in 1813–14; they were put down with great cruelties.

The Windward Islands.—The Windward Islands have still separate governments, though subordinate to the Governor of Barbados. Besides that island they include St. Vincent, Grenada, Tobago, and St. Lucia.

Barbados, as we have seen, did not lose its negro labour by the abolition of slavery. Much loss of life and damage to property were caused by a hurricane in 1831; but on the whole Barbados has done well. There was an eruption of the Souffrière, the volcano in St. Vincent, in 1812, attended with great destruction of life and property.

Trinidad.—Trinidad, though never a French colony, has many French inhabitants, who took refuge there when driven out of St. Domingo in 1809. Immediately after the emancipation of slaves, steps were taken to procure coolie-labour, and its prosperity has been continuous.

British Guiana.—This colony was only constituted as such in 1831, out of the three colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice.

British Honduras was made a colony under the Government of Jamaica in 1862. Before that time it was merely a settlement.

Bermuda.—A convict establishment was made here in 1824, and closed in 1863. It was never a penal settlement, for convicts were not set free there after they had served their time. It has an important dockyard, to which a large floating-dock was towed out in 1869. Its chief industry is raising early vegetables for New York. To be free to do this it imports its own food.

The Falkland Islands.—These islands in the South Atlantic were discovered by Davis in 1592. They were taken possession of by the French first, then by the Spaniards, and eventually yielded to Great Britain. They were occupied in 1833 for the benefit of the whale fishery. Many ships go there for provisions and coal.

We have now traced the growth of all the English colonies. Since 1847 emigration has greatly increased. The first cause was the famine produced in Ireland by the failure of the potato crop, and the discovery of gold in California and Australia gave an immense impetus. Up to 1840 the larger number of emigrants went to America, including the United States. Since then the preponderance has been in favour of Australia and New Zealand, the latter being preferred by the Scotch.

It is calculated that the colonies and dependencies of Great Britain cover one-sixth of the land of the globe, and have nearly the same proportion of its inhabitants.

Responsible government is possessed by the Dominion of Canada, the Cape Colony, all the Australian colonies except West Australia, and by Tasmania and New Zealand. West Australia, Natal, the Bahamas, Bermudas, and the Windward and Leeward Islands have representative institutions, and the remainder are all Crown colonies.

In some of these colonies it seems only a question of time and growth for responsible government to be obtained. While others, in which English people can never really take root, appear destined to remain without it, and to be possessions rather than colonies in the strictest sense of the word. We express this feeling in our common speech, when we call only the North American, South African, and Australasian settlements "the colonies."

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